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WORKING WITH STUDENT TEACHERS

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WORKING WITH STUDENT TEACHERS

Florence B. Stratemeyer & Margaret Lindsey
TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

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PREFACE

FUTURE generations of America's children will be guided in their school experiences by college students currently preparing to teach. The quality of the educational opportunity available to these children will depend to a large degree upon the kind of teachers our colleges prepare now. While many factors contribute to the development of skillful and artistic teachers, few are more important than the firsthand contacts with children and youth in school and community situations which are provided by teacher education programs.

Many persons participate in making student teaching and other professional laboratory experiences high quality learning opportunities for prospective teachers. There are the citizens who, through their boards of education, cooperate with colleges by opening their schools to future teachers for observation, participation, and actual practice in guiding the learning of children and youth. There are school administrators who welcome, advise, and help college students as they live and work in the school and its community. At the college, there are instructors in all fields of knowledge, administrators, and counselors who guide teachers-in-the-making. However, two groups of people carry special responsibility for working with college students in pro-

fessional laboratory experiences, particularly student teaching. These are the teachers of children and youth in whose classrooms students work and the college supervisors who visit them in the classroom and school and counsel them about their experiences.

This book is written to all those persons who work with college students in their professional preparation for teaching. Part I presents background information on the purposes and nature of the total teacher education program and a brief statement on college students and how they learn. Here, also, are discussed important considerations in college-school-community relationships as they affect student teaching. Detailed and specific suggestions for guiding students in all phases of student teaching and other laboratory experiences are presented in Part II.

Teaching—the planning, guiding, and evaluation of experiences with children and youth—is complex in nature and calls for both art and skill in the person executing the responsibility. Much can be said about the job of helping young people to become effective teachers—more than can be said in any one volume. The authors have made choices in deciding what to include in this analysis of the task, choices based upon contemporary challenges in the profession, what is known about how learning takes place and how it may best be guided, and the kinds of problems and interests classroom teachers and others working with future teachers have identified as important to them.

Both college and school personnel have long been concerned with the improvement of the preparation of teachers, particularly with that part called student teaching. It is the hope of the authors that this book will be of some help in raising the sights, offering stimulation, and providing concrete suggestions on ways of working for teacher educators who have the important task of guiding future teachers in their professional development.

M. L.
F. B. S.

February, 1958

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PART I

UNDERSTANDING THE SETTING OF TEACHER EDUCATION

1

YOUR STUDENTS TODAY: AMERICA'S TEACHERS TOMORROW

In addressing classroom teachers not long ago, a famous educator said, "You have the future of the world right in the palms of your hands." What a sobering thought in our times! But how true that the seeds sown by the behavior of classroom teachers all over the land today are harvested in the citizens of tomorrow. Have you stopped to think of the opportunity that is open to you in working today with students who will tomorrow be the teachers that hold the future of the world in their hands?

Counts, in his analysis of education and American civilization, makes this strong statement regarding the place of teachers in our society:

> . . . from the standpoint of the values and responsibilities involved teaching is probably the most difficult and important of all the professions.[1]

Referring to the selection and preparation of persons to assume responsibilities in this "most difficult and important of all the professions," he says:

> If the education of the young involves in some measure not only the fortunes of individuals, but also the future of our society and civili-

[1] Counts, George S., *Education and American Civilization*, p. 461. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

> zation, of our democratic institutions and free way of life, as it clearly does, then the selection and preparation of teachers should be recognized by all as a major concern of the Republic, certainly as important as the production of material things or even the maintenance of the national defense. Indeed, if conceived in appropriate terms and with adequate vision, it is the most basic and decisive factor in survival and progress.[2]

The conception of the role of teachers presented here is challenging. To accept as "the most basic and decisive factor in survival and progress" the selection and preparation of persons to play that role is to place on the shoulders of teacher educators a responsibility of moral significance. Yet, nothing less than this conception should serve as a guide in work with future teachers.

COOPERATING TEACHERS: KEY FIGURES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Cooperating teachers hold a significant and enviable position among teacher educators. Studies of beginning teachers, follow-up studies of graduates from teacher education programs, and students' evaluations of their college preparation reveal that student teaching and other kinds of laboratory experiences have a profound influence in determining the kind of teacher a student becomes. Tomorrow's teachers will tend to teach by principles they observe in use during their student teaching; they will tend to behave in ways they see their advisers and teachers behaving today; they will tend to operate on the values and to hold the attitudes they perceive as they observe, participate, and take responsibility in classrooms as student teachers today. So, in a very real sense, a cooperating teacher holds more of the future of the world in his hands than any single classroom teacher holds, for each day he works with college students he is making a vital contribution to their future teaching, which will in turn greatly influence the lives of hundreds of children and youth.

Who Are These Cooperating Teachers?

Years ago most classroom teachers who cooperated in the preparation of teachers were located in laboratory schools situated on

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 463.

or near college campuses and controlled almost entirely by colleges. Many are still found in such schools and they continue to make an indispensable contribution to teacher education programs. However, recent changes in the whole field of teacher education have resulted in the tendency of institutions to utilize in the professional program increasing numbers of classroom teachers in off-campus public and private schools.

Whereas teacher education programs used to include a minimum amount of student teaching (usually one or two hours a day for a period of a few weeks), many programs now include a sequence of professional laboratory experiences throughout the four or five college years and a period of full-time student teaching at some time during the last two years. The rapid increase in the amount of direct experience provided for students preparing to teach has made necessary an extension of both human and material facilities used in the program. Of particular significance has been the addition of a large number of elementary and secondary schools and a great many community agencies other than schools. Consequently, at the present time future teachers are obtaining many kinds of professional experiences in a wide range of laboratories. Personnel in these laboratories are being called upon to provide guidance to college students as they undertake various types of activities with children, youth, and adults in school and community situations.

Concurrently with program revisions calling for a wider range and greater number of professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers, there developed a belief among professional educators that future teachers should have at least some experience in representative schools. By representative is meant those schools which in population, materials and equipment, community setting, and working conditions approximate the kinds of schools to which most graduates will go as teachers. This belief prompted those responsible for teacher education to seek the services of teachers in such schools to work with college students in programs of professional laboratory experiences.

For these reasons, chiefly, hundreds of classroom teachers in elementary and secondary schools all over the country found themselves facing requests from colleges and universities that they cooperate in providing laboratory experiences, particularly stu-

dent teaching, for future teachers. Their response has been rewarding and has verified the professional spirit of teachers. At the present time, there are several thousand elementary and secondary classroom teachers in the United States who work every year with college students as observers and participators in their classrooms, who are cooperating teachers.

What Do Cooperating Teachers Do?

These key figures in teacher education—cooperating teachers—accept as part of their professional responsibility the task of helping to induct young men and women into the profession. They do this by sharing their daily activities with college students preparing to be teachers. They provide these students with opportunities to observe and study what goes on in the classroom, to test their ideas in practice, and to participate in a wide range of experiences characteristic of the life and work of the teacher.

While sharing the joys, the problems, and the rewards of teaching, cooperating teachers assume obligation for close and sympathetic guidance of teachers-in-the-making. They help college students to get a vision of the whole job of the teacher, to gain inspiration and zest, to deepen understanding of pupils and their school experiences, to increase skill in working with individuals and with groups, to build habits and attitudes conducive to continuous professional growth, and to realize ever more fully the opportunities which accompany worthy membership in the teaching profession.

Ways in which cooperating teachers contribute to the development of highly competent teachers are too numerous to list, and indeed, many of them almost defy description. Taking time to confer, formally and informally, with students; giving specific help on planning, selecting materials and methods, and evaluating learning; including students as co-workers in the staff group; helping them to acquire information basic to understanding learners; creating rich opportunities for students to carry responsibility for the guidance of children and youth; and analyzing cooperatively with them their accomplishments and their needs—these are only a few of the specific tasks performed by these cooperating teachers

every day as they work with college students. Beyond the concrete lie the intangibles—warm acceptance of prospective teachers as people, respect for ideas and feelings, understanding of both professional and personal problems and inadequacies, and going more than halfway so that a student may succeed. All of these are crucial in the lives of prospective teachers.

The profession owes a debt of gratitude to the classroom teachers cooperating with colleges and universities, for they are making a positive impact on the quality of teachers now joining the ranks of the teaching profession every year.

COOPERATING TEACHERS: SPECIAL DEMANDS OF THE JOB

Cooperating teachers, serving as important teacher educators, share with all members of the teaching profession the need for understandings, skills, and abilities which make for effective guidance of learning in the classroom and school. In fact, *the prime requisite for a cooperating teacher is that he be a master in his profession.* Being a superior teacher of children or youth is not the only essential quality of a good cooperating teacher, however, for not all superior teachers have the ability to work well in helping a novice to become a teacher. Successfully inducting a young person into teaching demands attitudes and abilities in addition to those required for effective teaching of boys and girls.

Interest in Teacher Education Is Essential

It is a well-known fact that interest is highly correlated with effort in the behavior of man. Therefore, *it is essential that cooperating teachers have genuine interest in teacher education.* It is to be expected that cooperating teachers who are interested in the preparation of teachers will expend greater effort in performing tasks related to teacher education. They not only will spend more time but will assume more personal and serious responsibility for the quality of their work with college students. Sincere interest is likely to be accompanied by a desire to go beyond the

line of duty, to exceed the minimum requirement, and to continue to grow more proficient. These desires are important in the work of cooperating teachers.

The motivation which prompts elementary and secondary school teachers to undertake work with college students has an important bearing on the interpersonal relationships existing in a laboratory situation. When cooperating teachers are truly interested in the preparation of tomorrow's teachers, they look forward eagerly to their work with college students, and a warm welcome pervades the classroom when the students arrive. When arrangements to cooperate with the college in its teacher education program are entered into for reasons other than sincere interest, it is easy for students to feel unwanted. Certainly such feelings are not conducive to good working relationships. Quite the opposite kind of feeling must be present if the student is to make maximum progress and if the cooperating teacher is to get satisfaction and pleasure from his work.

To work effectively with college students in any part of their program it is necessary to know something about their whole program. The cooperating teacher who is interested in teacher education is willing to take steps to become informed on the total program of which his work with students is a part. He looks for opportunities to participate with college staff members in the development of that program, to contribute in many ways to the improvement of all parts of the college curriculum, and to engage in a variety of activities designed to improve his ability as a teacher educator.

Ability to Deal with Principles Is Important

There are teachers who can *do* but cannot talk intelligently about what they do; there are teachers who can *talk* about what ought to be done but cannot do; and there are teachers who can both *do* and *talk* sensibly and clearly about what they do. Teachers in the last category make the best cooperating teachers. This is true because the young person learning to teach must be helped continuously to understand the why behind what is done in the classroom and in the school. College students are in the process

of clarifying ideas encountered in previous experiences and of developing new concepts. They come to laboratory situations with the expectation that direct experience with boys and girls under the guidance of a superior teacher will help them more than anything else in that process. To provide this help, *cooperating teachers must be able to deal with theoretical concepts—principles and generalizations—which are the fundamental bases for their decisions from day to day.*

There is another reason why ability to deal with principles is important for cooperating teachers. Because individuals and situations differ, the specific techniques for working with pupils in one classroom may not be appropriate for learners in another classroom. It is unwise for future teachers to concentrate their energies exclusively on building a large number of specific techniques and patterns for dealing with problems in teaching. While it is useful for them to acquire specific techniques, overemphasis on specifics may actually harm future teachers. What students need from cooperating teachers is help in understanding the theory behind specific techniques, and guidance in seeing proper relationships between specifics and general principles. When students have this kind of help, they will gradually build their own educational principles and develop understanding of what principles mean in practice. Such principles will be their guides when they assume responsibility for working with a group of children or youth in their own classrooms.

Skill in Working with Another Adult Is Necessary

College students engaged in laboratory experiences have just reached adulthood or are struggling seriously with developmental tasks which characterize the transition from adolescence to adulthood. This fact, in itself, creates certain demands on the cooperating teacher. For one thing, it means that the classroom teacher working with college students must extend his body of knowledge in human growth and development to include a new age group. For another thing, it means that he must augment his present teaching skills to include those of special significance in working with this new age group. And, finally, this fact makes it necessary

for the cooperating teacher to examine his principles of teaching for their particular implications in work with late adolescents and adults.

In addition to the new horizon of knowledge and skill implied in the foregoing paragraph, working with another adult in the classroom has the potential for creating certain unique problems for cooperating teachers. One illustration of such a problem is found in the relationships among pupils, cooperating teacher, and student teacher. While the instances are rare, occasions have arisen in which cooperating teachers felt they had lost some of the pupils' loyalty and regard because these were shared with student teachers. To a few cooperating teachers this is a disturbing and threatening affair. To the vast majority this is viewed as evidence of their success in helping learners to build positive attitudes toward student teachers and in helping student teachers to develop secure and constructive relationships with pupils.

Another illustration of a unique problem for cooperating teachers is found in the challenge to their procedures that resides in having another adult in the classroom—an adult who raises questions and seeks explanations. But, of course, this challenge is one of the most rewarding aspects of being a cooperating teacher. When perceived in its proper perspective, it is what makes college students contribute most to the quality of learning in the classroom where they work. Far from being a negative factor or one that should deter good teachers from wanting to work with college students, it is a factor that keeps a teacher on the growing edge and provides stimulation that evokes the best possible teaching.

One further comment should be made about the cooperating teacher's need for skill in working with another adult in the classroom. In one sense this skill involves not only working with another adult but also working through another adult. Responsibility for the experiences of boys and girls continues to reside in the classroom teacher even when a student teacher is playing the major role in the guidance of learning activities. Therefore, *the cooperating teacher must be able to continue to teach through another adult who is assuming leadership.* Skill in teaching boys and girls through another adult involves careful planning with that adult and the establishment of constructive working relations

with both learners and the student teacher as well as among learners, student teacher, and classroom teacher.

PURPOSE AND PLAN OF THIS BOOK

Addressed to the large corps of elementary and secondary school teachers cooperating with colleges and universities in the preparation of tomorrow's teachers, this book is intended to provide concrete help on the many tasks confronting this group of important agents in teacher education. In the chapters which follow, attention is given to the many functions performed by cooperating teachers in providing all kinds of professional laboratory experiences for future teachers. However, because student teaching is the most common and the most intensive of these experiences, it receives special emphasis throughout the book.

The organization of the chapters is not intended to imply a chronological treatment of the content. While the authors have built what to them is a logical sequence from one chapter to the next, each chapter deals with a clearly defined aspect of the role of the cooperating teacher. The book is divided into two parts. Part I presents background information designed to help those who work with prospective teachers in laboratory experiences to understand the total setting of the teacher education program. In the five chapters making up this Part, including the present chapter, attention is given to the critical role of cooperating teachers, to the goal of teacher education, to a brief description of the total program and the place of student teaching and other laboratory experiences in it, to college students as learners, and to the relationships among those who share in the guidance of college students in professional laboratory experiences.

Part II deals with specific responsibilities in the guidance of student teachers. Here concrete suggestions are given on helping prospective teachers in their continuous development of the many competencies needed for effective guidance of learning. Ways in which the cooperating teacher may share in making assignments of students to laboratory situations are discussed in Chapter 6. Preparation for and the essentials of a good beginning in student teaching are presented in Chapter 7. In Chapters 8 to 12, pro-

posals are offered on how student teachers may be guided in studying children and youth, in planning learning experiences, in teaching, in evaluating the growth of learners, and in dealing with the total range of the teacher's activities in the school community.

Observing and conferring are such important parts of work with college students preparing to teach that these two functions have been given special analysis in Chapters 13 and 14. Evaluating the progress of student teachers is woven into all the preceding chapters and is given particular attention in Chapter 15. Finally, Chapter 16 deals with the importance of the transition from college student to member of the teaching profession.

In this brief introductory chapter the group of people to whom the book is addressed has been defined and the nature of their work has been suggested in general. The chapters that follow are written directly to this group of classroom teachers cooperating as key agents in teacher education. It is hoped that you, as a member of this group, will find satisfaction and real help as you use the ideas presented in the rest of the volume.

2

GOAL OF TEACHER EDUCATION: EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

One of the first tasks of the teacher educator is to define the kind of teacher needed in the schools as they are now and may be in the years just ahead. A clear conception of the end product desired—effective teachers—serves as the central guide in making decisions on policies and programs. Since you are a key person among teacher educators, you need to have a clear idea of the abilities you are trying to help your students develop. Your concept of an effective teacher is what determines your own behavior in the classroom with youngsters; similarly, it gives direction to your work with college students preparing to be teachers.

DESCRIBING THE EFFECTIVE TEACHER

Perhaps thinking about a brief conversation overheard between two children in Mr. Hunter's room will illustrate one way of going about the task of describing the qualities needed by today's teacher.

> "The men in my dad's plant are on strike and he says they are just making it tough for themselves. He's not going to do anything about it until they come around."

"He's going to wait a long time and lose plenty, because my dad works for him and he says the men are not going back till they get what they want."

"Mr. Hunter, did you hear what Jim said? How can his dad and the other men hold out against my dad? Why, pretty soon they wouldn't have any money at all and they couldn't live."

"Oh, Jack, you're wrong. Isn't he, Mr. Hunter?"

What does Mr. Hunter, as a teacher, need to do to help these boys with this problem? What kind of person must he be?

THE PROBLEM PRESENTED BY THESE CHILDREN IS:	MR. HUNTER NEEDS:
Deeply rooted in the history of our culture	Clear conception of the development of our culture
Intricately related to other maladjustments in the present social order	Broad and deep understanding of the social, economic, and political issues of our time
Located in a particular industry in a particular community	Knowledge of the social, political, and economic structure of the community
Related to values held by participants	Clear values
THE BOYS PRESENTING THE PROBLEM DEMONSTRATE:	**MR. HUNTER NEEDS:**
Lack of skill in approaching such a problem	Skill in problem solving and ability to help others develop that skill
Inadequate informational background	Factual information and ways of helping children gain information
Differences in family and personal backgrounds	Understanding of background differences and ways of dealing with them
Differences in predominating values	Understanding of the variety of values which control behavior of individuals
Need to improve interpersonal relationships	Ability to build good relationships and help others improve relationships
THE WHOLE SITUATION PRESENTS MR. HUNTER WITH SUCH PROBLEMS AS:	**MR. HUNTER NEEDS:**
Should I attempt to help with this problem at all?	Strong conviction as to the role of education, the nature and content of the curriculum

Should I take a position on the issue?	Point of view relative to teaching controversial issues in the school
What immediate reaction shall I make?	Ability to make sound decisions quickly

Not every teacher is confronted with problems exactly like the one Mr. Hunter faces, but every teacher is called upon to deal with a variety of problems demanding similar basic understandings and skills. Nor does the problem presented here represent the only type of situation in which Mr. Hunter finds himself many times every day. Like most teachers, he is busily engaged in helping children with *all* their needs. Like most teachers, he works with the entire school in many ways; he works with parents and other laymen toward the improvement of the educational program. He is a citizen, active in significant ways in the life of his community. He finds, too, that he needs much time for study, not only because he wants to be well-informed but also because he is curious about many things and derives pleasure from his intellectual pursuits. Finally, like so many other teachers, Mr. Hunter is a sociable individual, delights in his many friends, and wants time to enjoy life.

This brief survey of some of the qualities Mr. Hunter needs as a teacher in a modern school points up both the size and the complexity of the role played by today's teacher. Mr. Hunter not only must *be a student of American and world culture* but he must *be intimately informed on the social structure of his school community.*

Because children with whom he works are curious, alert, and eager to learn, Mr. Hunter finds that he must *have a deep resource of knowledge within himself*—some knowledge from many areas of subject matter—and that he must *be able to use this resource in relation to real problems* he and the children face. Much of what he does every day depends upon his being *a master of the communication arts.*

He has very special needs related to helping others to deal effectively with life's problems and to develop skills, understandings, and attitudes related to those problems. So, he must *be able to make use of the best that is known about how people learn and the many ways of helping people to learn.* Not only must he *have*

knowledge of findings in human growth and development in general; he must also *have skill in studying particular groups and individuals* with whom he works. It is essential that he *have ability to establish good relationships* with persons of all age levels.

With other professional people Mr. Hunter works on the many tasks to be performed and the decisions to be made in planning, operating, and evaluating the school program. In this capacity he finds that he must *be able to work well with his peers* and he must also *be able to make substantial contributions to each job to be done.* On occasion he finds himself in conflict with his colleagues, or with parents, and at these times—as at any point of decision making—he is forced to be clear on *values and principles* which serve as guides to his behavior.

As an *active participant in his community* he has the same needs as any other good American citizen. He finds that he is constantly searching himself to make of himself what his ideal dictates; that he needs to *understand himself* and *continue to develop* into the happy, wholesome individual he wants to be.

Mr. Hunter is not so unusual as an American teacher. In fact, he is quite representative. The role he plays as a professional worker, as a citizen, and as a person is typical of the role played by good teachers everywhere. While the specific competencies needed by teachers vary from one situation to another and from one person to another, the qualities needed by Mr. Hunter are representative of those needed by most teachers.

You will want to give serious thought to describing your conception of a good teacher. If it is to be of maximum use in your work, your description will have to be in terms of behavior rather than general traits. There are several ways in which to go about clarifying your ideas of effective teaching and getting them down in black and white for reference. One way is suggested by the brief analysis of the incident in Mr. Hunter's classroom. To pursue this kind of analysis, you would take several episodes from school experiences and, through study of them, determine what a teacher needs to know and do in order to provide desirable guidance of learners in the instances selected for study.

Some teachers have found it profitable to make a systematic study of their own activities as a basis for organizing and putting in writing their conception of the effective teacher. Keeping a

professional diary over a period of time and periodically making an analysis of the entries helps to draw together all those competencies you find you need in your work as a teacher.

Where the opportunity is available, observation of other teachers at work with children or youth is another productive way to study the behavior of effective teachers. For example, observe a teacher for a day as he goes about his work. When it seems to you that pupils are having good learning experiences, try to determine what about the teacher or his behavior produced the conditions promoting the high quality of experience for learners. Repeating this process with different teachers in different kinds of situations will result in an accumulation of data that can be organized and used as a basis for your description of a good teacher.

Help on this important undertaking is available in professional literature, too. Particularly useful are those writings which describe classroom procedures showing good teachers at work with children and youth. A valuable contribution is found also in research on teacher competencies which is periodically summarized in the *Review of Educational Research.*[1] Discussions of evaluation of teachers and teaching often include statements of the criteria by which evaluation may be made. Such statements can be of assistance to you in checking the comprehensiveness of your present conception of an effective teacher and in clarifying what kind of behavior usually accompanies certain abilities in teachers.

Another kind of professional literature on teacher effectiveness is worthy of special comment. It is that which has been produced by groups of educators working cooperatively over a period of time in an effort to establish a base against which teachers might be selected, prepared, and evaluated on the job. The result of one such cooperative undertaking is reported in *Factors in Teaching Competence,*[2] published by the National Education Association, Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

[1] The *Review of Educational Research* is published quarterly by the American Educational Research Association, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. A summary of the kind referred to here is given in the June, 1955, issue.

[2] National Education Association of the United States, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *Factors in Teaching Competence;* the second in a series of source materials for study groups; report of the Albany conference, held at Albany, N. Y., June 23–26, 1954. Washington, D. C., 1954.

In this document behavior of an effective teacher is organized around various roles a teacher plays—a director of learning, a counselor and guidance worker, a member of the school community, a mediator of the culture, a link with the community, and a member of the profession.

Films are also exceedingly helpful to those who want to work on a description of good teachers and teaching. They can be used in much the same ways as you might use observation records. One advantage of films is that they can be seen several times and therefore permit closer analysis. Even though a film may not present enough detailed information on the setting to make a complete analysis possible, usually there is sufficient background to provide understanding of the problem being depicted and the solution being suggested.

Best results in preparing a description of your conception of an effective teacher probably will be achieved when you work with your colleagues and use a variety of procedures, such as those suggested here and others which your group may develop. Because you are a cooperating teacher working with a college or university, you have the advantage of doing this job with educators who come to the task from different sides. The primary concern of preservice teacher educators is with developing a basis for determining the content and guidance of experience in the preparation of teachers. Inservice professional workers are concerned with establishing guides for continued growth of individuals. Both groups must have a clear conception of the goal they are trying to reach.

YOUR CONCEPTION OF AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER: A GUIDE IN WORK WITH STUDENTS

Your conception of an effective teacher provides you with one sound basis for making decisions on what to do as you guide college students working in your classroom. The particular competencies you feel to be important in teaching ought to make a real difference in the learning opportunities you offer to college students. Your goal in teacher education will serve also as you and your students engage in cooperative evaluation of their work. Furthermore, since you will be concerned that you demonstrate

good teaching, you will have many occasions to apply your conception of an effective teacher as a criterion in appraisal of your own work.

Your Conception of an Effective Teacher Is the Basis for Making Decisions regarding Work with College Students

Perhaps one way to see how your conception of an effective teacher makes a real difference in the kinds of opportunities you provide for college students in your classroom is to go back to the case of Mr. Hunter. There it was indicated that Mr. Hunter needed to have skill in problem solving and ability to help others develop that skill. Do you believe this is an important competence for teachers? If you do, you will want to give students chances to face real problems of teaching. For example, you would not observe the behavior of disturbed Doris in your class, gather background information as to possible causes and decide steps that should be taken to help the child, and then tell your student teacher how to work with Doris. Rather, you would involve your student teacher in each of the steps connected with understanding and helping the pupil, encouraging the student to use his own ideas as he defines the problem, gathers evidence that may bear on its treatment, and tests procedures for dealing with the problem.

Again, if you believe that you should help college students to build problem-solving skills, you will deliberately share with them the difficult decisions on selection of learning experiences. Some cooperating teachers actually withhold from students opportunities to face questions of what kinds of experience should be included in the program of boys and girls. They do this by making decisions themselves and then informing students of those decisions and suggesting specific jobs the students might do within a framework they have already determined. When this is done, students are denied the chance to learn how to deal with one of the most important problems facing teachers.

When a student who is taking responsibility for a discussion in your classroom has difficulty because some pupils tend to interrupt or be disinterested or refuse to participate, that student is

facing a problem in teaching. If you believe the student needs experience in learning how to solve such a problem, you will help him work out bases for possible solutions and test ways of overcoming the difficulty.

We have been considering how one aspect of your conception of a good teacher might provide direction for your work with college students. Similar examples could be given for every ability you think it is important for a teacher to have. If you believe that teachers should have skill in working with parents, you will see to it that future teachers working with you have a chance to build this skill through experiences with parents. If you believe that effective teaching can result only when a teacher is fully aware of the needs of individuals in the group, you will provide many opportunities for your college students to learn how to study individual needs and determine ways of meeting them. You will include as part of your work with each student some consideration of his role in the school community, as a professional worker and as a citizen, if you believe it is important that teachers play such a role.

One of the most important reasons for your having a clear conception of your goal in working with college students—contributing to their development as effective teachers—is that you may have a constant guide in making decisions relating to your work with them.

Your Conception of an Effective Teacher Is the Basis for Guiding Students in Evaluation of Their Work

Helping future teachers to evaluate their progress through laboratory experiences is one of your major responsibilities. This task is so important that a whole chapter of this book (Chapter 15) is devoted to a discussion of it.

Every evaluation process includes these steps: (1) defining purpose, goal, or objective; (2) determining the kinds of evidence which may be used to appraise progress toward the end sought; (3) gathering and interpreting evidence; and (4) planning next steps of action in achieving the goal, purpose, or objective. The first step must be taken before consideration can be given to the

kind of evidence on which the appraisal may be made. Without this step, it is impossible to analyze evidence, regardless of its quantity or quality. Only when you are clear on the abilities you are trying to help the student develop can you have criteria for interpreting evidence and ascertaining his progress toward those abilities, and for planning next steps.

Along with college advisers and students it is necessary for you to determine, as a basis for evaluating student growth, the specific skills and abilities that you hope students will develop. The best way to do this, as was suggested earlier, is to join forces with others—college personnel and students—and cooperatively develop a statement which represents the best thinking of the combined group. It is very important that the persons working most closely with the student and the student himself have a share in determining what abilities are to be considered in the evaluation of his work.

Your conception of the effective teacher is basic to your participation with the group of people whose responsibility it is to determine criteria for evaluating the work of student teachers. You will modify this conception from time to time in relation to constructive thinking by you and your colleagues (including college students) and to your experience as a teacher of children or youth and a teacher of future teachers. But at any given time, it should be possible for you to produce a clear statement of your own which represents the conception of an effective teacher you are using in evaluating the progress of college students working with you.

Your Conception of an Effective Teacher Is the Basis for Appraising Your Own Work as a Teacher

Good teachers everywhere are constantly evaluating their work with boys and girls. In doing this, every teacher has a conception of what he would like to be and do as a strong professional person. But, for the cooperating teacher, such evaluation of teaching has exceedingly important implications for two reasons: (1) because this evaluation must be shared with college students who are themselves learning to teach, and (2) because cooperating

teachers are demonstrating the kind of teaching which will have a fundamental influence on what their college students are likely to accept and practice. In addition to these two reasons, it must be kept in mind that the whole process of evaluation used by cooperating teachers—whether it be appraisal of their work with children or youth, their work with students, or the progress of students—is a process being observed and studied by prospective teachers.

To consider the importance of the bases for and the process used in your self-evaluation, think of your role as a demonstration teacher. College students are in your classroom to observe how you guide pupils in certain activities. Before these students come to your class, you meet them and share with them information about the learners and provide background on what you plan to do and why. While they observe they record what happens in the classroom and later they discuss with you their record and the questions they have on why you did or did not do certain things. In this situation, a very common one for cooperating teachers, you must be prepared with your own evaluation of the activity observed, and you must be ready with an open mind to consider evaluative comments made by your observers. How could you operate successfully as a demonstration teacher, sharing evaluation of your work with a group of college students, if you were not clear on the criteria to be used in evaluating your teaching?

Because you want your example to be worthy, you need to be evaluating your work every day as a basis for determining how you may improve it. The standards you use in making this continuous appraisal of your own teaching are, in fact, your conception of an effective teacher. Without this conception, spelled out in standards which serve as criteria for self-evaluation, how could you be sure that you were demonstrating your best teaching?

In practically all that you do as a cooperating teacher, you are using your conception of an effective teacher as your guide. In making decisions regarding the kinds of experiences college students will profit from, in guiding them in their evaluation, and in appraising your own work as a teacher of children and youth and of future teachers, you have a strong foundation if you have a clear statement of the behavioral goals you are seeking.

3

THE TOTAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

THE work of prospective teachers in your classroom is a part of the total program designed to help them become the kind of teachers who possess the qualities discussed in Chapter 2. Before they come to your room college students have been and are having a range of experiences both in and out of college classes which contribute to what they are as persons and the kind of understandings, skills, and attitudes they bring to the laboratory situation. Similarly, what they do and feel in their work with you gives meaning to other parts of their total program. If you are to make the maximum contribution to students' development, you will need to be informed about the whole program of which your work is a part. Furthermore, as a key figure in the teacher education program of a college or university, you share responsibility with your colleagues for making that program the highest quality possible. For this reason, too, you will want to be a student of teacher education, keeping yourself well-informed on current trends and ideas relating to the education of teachers.

DIVERSITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

One of the outstanding characteristics of teacher education in this country is diversity. Teachers are prepared not in one type of

institution of higher education but in every type—single-purpose teachers colleges, multipurpose state colleges, liberal arts colleges, junior colleges, and universities. A teacher may be prepared in a private institution or a publicly supported college or university.

In the United States, this diversity is viewed as being wholesome for several reasons. It provides maximum opportunity for institutions and individuals to use their creativity and ability in developing programs. It permits adjustments of programs to individual differences in people and institutions. It encourages experimentation and research on a variety of approaches to the education of teachers. It makes possible a contribution to the preparation of teachers by a range of different kinds of higher education institutions.

However, teacher education in the various states of this nation is not entirely without controls from outside the local institutions. Indeed, there exist powerful direct and indirect controls. One illustration of such a control is found in the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education, an organization composed of representatives from various groups concerned with the education of teachers, which accredits institutions on the basis of the degree to which their programs meet certain standards set up by this representative council. Since most institutions desire to be accredited, the council tends to control broad aspects of the total program through its accrediting function. Another illustration is the indirect control exercised by professionl groups and organizations which carry on studies and investigations, report their findings, and seek the implementation of them through appeal to their members. Still another control, direct in nature, is the state certification requirements for teaching which make it necessary for institutions to provide for their students meeting requirements if they wish to have graduates certified to teach.

These and other controls, both direct and indirect, serve a worthwhile function in teacher education. They provide stimulation and encouragement for institutions to offer the best programs possible. They tend to curb those colleges which would try to prepare teachers without adequate personnel or program. Hence, teacher education in this country is in the fortunate position of having freedom along with assigned responsibility and obligation to offer high quality programs.

COMMON COMPONENTS OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS [1]

While diversity is characteristic of teacher education, common elements are to be found in most programs. Descriptive titles applied to various parts of the total program differ from one institution to another but exact titles are not important here. Regardless of the type of institution with which you work, your students' programs in all probability include three major parts: (1) general education, (2) specialization, and (3) professional education. Each of these parts is discussed briefly in the sections which follow.

General Education Is an Integral Part of All Teacher Education Programs

Courses and other experiences in general education are designed to help each future citizen, regardless of his occupational goal, acquire information, skills, and attitudes essential for living well and contributing to democracy as a way of life. Included in general education is a systematic study of selected parts of the vast body of information, skills, and values in the areas of human knowledge—the humanities, the social sciences, and the physical sciences. As part of the general education component, also, college students are assisted in their development and mastery of the communication skills and the maintenance of sound physical and mental health.

The goals of general education programs not only are consistent with those of teacher education, but are of importance to every future teacher. Illustrative of the stated goals of many general education programs are these: (1) to assist each student in the development of physical and mental well-being; (2) to help each student master the art and skills of communication; (3) to aid each student in deepening his understanding of our culture, its institutions and values, its relation to other cultures of the world —past and present—its current problems and its future hopes;

[1] No attempt is made here to discuss fully the many important aspects of the total teacher education program. Readers who are interested in a thorough treatment of this topic should refer to American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, *Teacher Education for a Free People.* Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1955.

(4) to help each student acquire the values and sensitivities which contribute to intelligent citizenship in a democracy; and (5) to provide each student with opportunities to acquire basic acquaintance with the bodies of human knowledge as they relate to understanding, meeting, and dealing effectively with social and personal problems. Accomplishment of such goals is essential for prospective teachers not only as persons but because most of what is taught children and youth is general education.

Higher education programs provide different kinds of opportunities for students to attain these goals. In some instances planned experiences are confined to a sequence of courses in each of the basic areas of knowledge, and these courses are organized to present what it is deemed important for the student to know. In other programs general education goals are reached through a sequence of experiences, some in-course and some out-of-course, designed to meet the individual needs of students and drawing upon organized bodies of knowledge to deal with everyday problems. Since general education is a relatively new aspect of higher education programs and consequently is under careful study by leaders in the field, it would be premature to assume that all the answers are known to questions on the nature and scope of general education. It is certain, however, that students with whom you will be working have had general education as one part of their total program. It is to be hoped that they have made a strong beginning in achieving the goals usually ascribed to general education.

Teacher Education Programs Include Specialization

The second common component in teacher education programs is specialization. This part of the student's program consists of a group of related courses and other experiences in an area or areas of his choice. Different names are applied to this aspect of college work—majors and minors, comprehensive areas, specialization, and concentration, to mention a few. The particular name is not important here. It is almost universal practice in higher education today for each student to select a field of work to which he devotes considerably more time than he does to other areas

and in which he builds deeper and broader understanding than he would have time to acquire in all fields.

Most often the college student's choice of specialization is determined by his vocational or professional goal. This is true of students who are preparing to be teachers. The prospective secondary school teacher will select a subject or a broad area in which to specialize because he is looking forward to teaching in that field. For example, a student who plans to teach social studies in the high school would select as his major (or his comprehensive area) social studies. Within this specialization, he would take a series of specific courses in various areas of the social studies. In addition, he would take, also as part of his specialization, a group of related courses, since he will need to understand relationships between his field and other bodies of knowledge and problems.

The student who is preparing to teach in the elementary school also specializes. However, programs differ as to the nature of specialization for elementary education majors. In some cases, these students select a subject for specialization much the same as do prospective secondary school teachers. In other instances, specialization for elementary school teachers consists of a series of courses designed to provide the student with depth of knowledge in the various areas of the elementary school curriculum and on understanding learners. Frequently such specialization is combined with study of methods, so that the specialized and professional aspects of the program are not separate entities.

That part of the college program called specialization is of great importance to prospective teachers. One could not possibly be adequately prepared to guide learners without being well-informed oneself, without having a knowledge background on which to draw, and without being skilled in using available resources and processes for acquiring information.

Professional Education Is a Part of All Programs for Teachers

Professional education makes up the third component of the total teacher education program. By professional education is meant those planned experiences dealing directly with the teaching-learning process and the teacher's work related to the guid-

ance of that process. These will include, in almost all programs, systematic study of (1) human growth and development, (2) the nature of the learning process, (3) selection and organization of curriculum experiences, (4) history and philosophy of education, and (5) general and special methods of teaching. Professional laboratory experiences—direct contacts with children, youth, and adults in school and community situations—are frequently a part of most of these courses. Student teaching, as a part of professional education, gives the student a chance to become a responsible worker with a group of children or youth over a period of consecutive weeks. In this capacity, the student usually has an opportunity to work with other school personnel and with parents and community representatives in tasks related to the guidance of learning.

Like all parts of higher education programs, professional education is characterized by diversity from one institution to the next. Differences are apparent in the amount of professional education, in the placement of it in the total program, and in the nature of the experiences and their organization within it.

For the prospective secondary school teacher the amount of professional education will vary, depending upon the institution he attends. Courses in professional education may be spread throughout the four or five years of college work or they may be confined to a single semester. Frequently all work in professional education is taken during the junior and senior years of college.

Organization of experience varies from one program to another, also. In some cases, the student takes a sequence of separate courses usually following a pattern something like this: Orientation or Introduction to Education, Psychology (adolescent and educational), General Principles of Teaching, Special Methods (in his major and minor subject fields), History and Philosophy of Education, and Student Teaching. In other teacher education programs, work in professional education is organized into one or two large blocks and the student studies all aspects of the teaching-learning process while he engages in some laboratory experiences (sometimes including student teaching). In these cases, study of educational theory is usually centered on problems observed or encountered in guiding learning of high school youth.

Professional education programs for future elementary school

teachers vary more widely than those in secondary education. Here a student may take a long series of separate methods courses —teaching of arithmetic, teaching of reading, teaching of science, and so on—and a sequence of courses in psychology and general methods. Or, he may pursue his professional education through courses organized into larger blocks—the language arts in the elementary school, social education for children, and so on—and also take a series of courses in psychology. In still other programs, professional work is organized into large blocks focused on study of the child and the school curriculum. At the present time, most programs in elementary education provide for more professional laboratory experiences, including more time in student teaching, than do secondary education programs.

COURSE DISTRIBUTION AND CREDIT ALLOCATION

The particular distribution of credit and placement of courses in the common elements of teacher education—general education, professional education, specialization—will differ from one institution to another. An illustration of a total program is presented here to show one type of course and credit distribution.

PROGRAM AS OF JUNE 1957 [2]
IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS

GENERAL EDUCATION

A. Communications and Mathematics

Year Course Is Taken	*Course Title*	*Semester Hours Credit*
1	English I *	3
1	English II †	2
1	Fundamentals of Speech	3
1 or 2	Mathematics for General Education	3
		11

* Students who demonstrate high level proficiency on the English placement tests are released from English I and begin with English II.

† English I and II and Fundamentals of Speech are also offered in an integrated course to several experimental sections of "Communications."

[2] As presented by Daryl Pendergraft, Chairman of the Curriculum Committee, June, 1957.

B. Sciences *

Year Course Is Taken	*Course Title*	*Semester Hours Credit*
1, 2, or 3	The Physical Sciences	3
1, 2, or 3	The Biological Sciences †	4
1, 2, or 3	World Resources	3
		10

* Must be taken in sequence listed.
† The new Biological Sciences incorporates the work formerly included in Human Biology.

C. Social Sciences *

Year Course Is Taken	*Course Title*	*Semester Hours Credit*
2 or 3	Man in Society I	4
2 or 3	Man in Society II	4
		8

* Must be taken in sequence listed.

D. Humanities

Year Course Is Taken	*Course Title*	*Semester Hours Credit*
1	Ancient Times through the Reformation *	4
1	From the Seventeenth Century to the Present *	4
1 or 2	Man and Materials	2
1 or 2	Exploring Music	2
3 or 4	Introduction to Philosophy or The Heritage of the Bible	2
		14

* Part of the integrated humanities course.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION (Professional courses taken in common by all prospective teachers, both elementary and secondary)

Year Course Is Taken	*Course Title*	*Semester Hours Credit*
1 or 2	The Teacher and the Child	5
2 or 3	Psychology of Learning	5
3 or 4	Social Foundations of Education *	4
3 or 4	Student Teaching †	8
		22

* Social Foundations is taken during the semester in which student teaching is done. It may be in the nine-week period either before or after student teaching.
† Student teaching is done full-time for nine weeks, usually during the last semester of the junior year or the first semester of the senior year.

SPECIALIZATION

A. Summary of requirements for secondary teaching or special subject curriculum for students who plan to teach in high school or in special subjects

	Semester Hours Credit	
General Education	43	
Professional Education	22	
Physical Education	4	
Majors,* Minors, and Electives	61	
		130

* It should be noted that "major" here refers to a broad divisional major (science or social science) rather than to a major in a more limited field (physics or history). Included in the major, and sometimes in the minor, must be a professional course in the techniques and materials of instruction (special methods). This course is for 2 or 3 semester hours.

B. Summary of requirements for majors in junior high school education curriculum

	Semester Hours Credit	
General Education	43	
Professional Education	22	
Physical Education	4	
Additional Junior High School Curriculum Requirements	34	
Subject-matter Concentration and Electives	27	
		130

C. Summary of requirements for students preparing to teach in upper grades of the elementary school (lower grade curriculum quite similar)

	Semester Hours Credit	
General Education	43	
Professional Education	22	
Physical Education	2	
Specialized Requirements for Upper Grade Prospective Teachers (includes both academic and professional courses)	43	
Subject-matter Concentration	12	
Electives	8	
		130

All students preparing to teach in either elementary or secondary school by this program would have to take 43 semester hours of general education courses in common. Notice, however, that even within this common requirement there is flexibility of at least three types: (1) a student may "test out" of a required course and thereby be free to elect a course in its place; (2) courses required as part of general education may be counted as part of the requirement in specialization when appropriate; and (3) a student may choose the time of taking many of the required courses. Such flexibility provides for individual differences among students.

To get a more exact picture of the total teacher education program in this institution, a sample of one student's program is presented. It should be recognized that the illustration which follows is representative, but that actually students' programs differ in terms of their needs and the particular area in which they are specializing.

Possible Program of One Student Majoring in an Area for Teaching in the Secondary School
Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls

Year	*First Semester*	*Semester Hours*		*Second Semester*	*Semester Hours*	
1	English I (or Communications I)	3		English II (or Communications II)	2	
	Ancient Times through the Reformation	4		From the Seventeenth Century to the Present	4	
	Physical Education	1		Physical Education	1	
	General Education Mathematics	3		Fundamentals of Speech	3	
	Man and Materials	2		The Physical Sciences	3	
	Major or Electives	3		Major and Electives	3	
			16			16
2	Biological Sciences	4		Psychology of Learning	5	
	The Teacher and the Child	5		Man in Society II	4	
	Man in Society I	4		Physical Education	1	
	Major or Electives	2		Exploring Music	2	
	Physical Education	1		Major or Electives	4	
			16			16

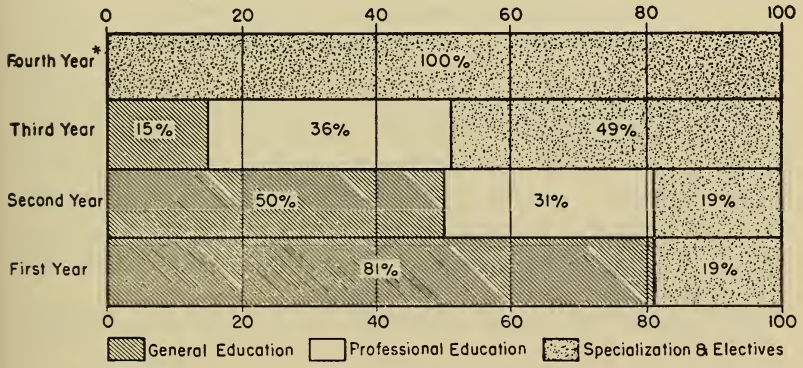
3	World Resources	3		Student Teaching	8
	Major or Electives	14		Social Foundations of Education	4
			17	Introduction to Philosophy or The Heritage of the Bible	2
				Elective	2
					16
4	Major, Minor, and Electives	17		Major, Minor, and Electives	16

Summary of Credit Distribution in Above Sample Program

Area	*Total Credit (Semester Hours)*	*Credit Distribution (Semester Hours) First*	*Second*	*Third*	*Fourth*
General Education	47	26	16	5	0
Specialization and Electives	61	6	6	16	33
Professional Education	22	0	10	12	0
	130	32	32	33	33

The relative amounts of time this student would devote each year to each area can be seen in the following graph:

Per Cent of Total Program in Each Area



* Work of the senior year includes courses and other activities based on the student's needs—usually both general and professional education, as well as further work in the major or minor.

He would devote 36 per cent of the total four-year program to general education, 47 per cent to specialization and electives, and 17 per cent to professional education. It should be noted that the 47 per cent of his total program allocated to specialization and electives includes some professional work.

It is important that you be acquainted with the total teacher education program of which your work is a part. The foregoing illustration suggests some of the information you need to have about the whole program of the students who work with you. But you will want to know much more about the special program of concern to you.[3] For example, you need to know not only course titles and credit allocation but, more important, the kinds of experiences students have within courses. (Do instructors plan cooperatively with students? Are students encouraged to use many materials, to explore and discover, and to create? Are there provisions for direct experiences in most courses? What part do students play in evaluating their progress? Do instructors help them relate course work to their professional goals?) Then, too, since the course program is only part of the student's college experience, you need to be informed about other aspects, such as non-course activities of all kinds. Understanding the total program of your students is basic to your effective guidance of them.

PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES IN PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Most of your work with prospective teachers is a part of their program of professional laboratory experiences. For this reason, this aspect of teacher preparation is isolated here for more detailed discussion. To provide the best possible guidance for students with whom you work in any capacity, it is important that you have clear understanding of the relation of their work with you to their total program at the college.

Professional laboratory experiences are deliberately planned

[3] See Chapter 5 for suggestions on how you may secure information about the programs in institutions with which you are cooperating.

activities for prospective teachers which are designed to provide a range of direct contacts with children, youth, and adults in school and community situations. Such experiences should be an integral part of all three aspects of the college program just discussed—general education, professional education, and specialization. Illustrations are presented in the paragraphs following.

Professional Laboratory Experiences Should Be Included in General Education

Future teachers are likely to have their work in general education in the same classes with other college students. Therefore it cannot be assumed that teacher education students will have laboratory experiences in general education different from their peers preparing for other vocations. But it is not necessary that their activities in general education be different. What is necessary is that they, as prospective teachers, be helped to relate their experiences in general education to their professional goal. A few examples will serve to show how activities in general education may be turned into desirable laboratory experiences for prospective teachers.

A very significant laboratory experience for future teachers is their observation and analysis of teaching and learning as carried on in their own college classes. This is just as true in general education courses as in other aspects of the college program. For example, when a college instructor in communications gives attention to the individual needs of each student and tries to plan class activities to meet those needs, he is demonstrating to the prospective teacher an important principle of teaching. Or, as the instructor in social science guides students so that their work relates intimately to problems which have meaning for them, he is practicing a sound principle of teaching—one which is basic to effective teaching at all levels. Again, when the instructor in the humanities plans cooperatively with his college students for the activities to be carried on in the class, holds students responsible for their decisions, and involves them in appraising the effectiveness of their work, he, too, is demonstrating to prospective teach-

ers vitally important principles of teaching. In other words, the nature of the learning experience the student has under the guidance of his teachers in general education is, as a matter of fact, a direct contact with the teaching-learning process in action. It is a powerful determinant of what the future teacher begins to accept as good teaching. While it is not always possible, it is highly desirable for teacher education students to have careful guidance in their observation and analysis of teaching as carried on by their instructors in general education.

There are other kinds of laboratory experiences which may be part of work in general education. Take, for example, a course in the Nature of Society. Here students may engage in many activities which bring them into direct contact with institutions of society and the forces which mold community structures. How could such a course be complete without consideration of the school as a social agency? The students in such a class may visit the Department of Education of the state, or confer with the school board in a local community, or visit schools. Such a course would be woefully inadequate if it did not provide some firsthand study of the community—its legal structure, its social structure, its ethnic groups, its mores and value systems, the forces that make it a "community." It is important for all citizens to have this kind of direct experience in study of what makes a community, but for a future teacher such an experience can and should have double significance. The student teacher is concerned with his own personal citizenship responsibilities and also with his future function as a teacher in one of the community's most important "forces"—the school.

What has been said here about possible significant laboratory experiences for future teachers in a course in the Nature of Society might also be said about activities in other general education courses. There does not exist a course in general education that would not be more effectively taught by use of direct contact with the content of the course as it impinges on the lives of people. Saying this is not meant to imply that all teaching in general education should be done through direct experience. Rather it is meant to suggest that the use of direct experience contributes to the amount and quality of students' learning from other kinds of activities, such as reading, listening, discussing, and so on.

Professional Laboratory Experiences Should Be Part of the Student's Work in Specialization

In his area or areas of specialization, the future teacher has unique laboratory experiences. This is true whether or not the instructors plan for them. Here, as in all college work, teacher education students have firsthand opportunity to observe teaching. Because this teaching is in the field of particular professional concern to the student, he is likely to observe with more interest and with greater discrimination than in other non-specialization courses. In fact, proof that the experience of the future teacher in his special-field courses is extremely significant as a laboratory experience is found in the notable tendency for teachers to teach as they were taught. Many a high school teacher is today trying to teach his classes through the same procedures as his college instructors used with him. This means that he did observe such practice, he did use those classes as laboratory experiences in learning how to teach.

Augmenting this kind of experience in specialization courses are activities such as field trips, surveys, small-group work, and study using a variety of school and community resources for gathering data. These activities can and should be made professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers. If a college instructor recognizes the value of capitalizing upon all activities for their contribution to the preparation of teachers, he will see to it that students who are prospective teachers are helped to examine the process as well as the content of activities in specialization courses. For example, suppose the sophomore class in physical science is taking a field trip to gather data on the new dial telephone system which has just been installed in the community. The instructor uses all the best procedures for planning the trip, providing adequate preparation for the students, and helping them to anticipate needs during the trip. The demonstration of good teaching that he supplies may go unnoticed by students unless time is taken in the college class or through special work with future teachers in the class to analyze the process and relate principles used in planning this field trip to those which would apply in planning any field trip for children or youth.

Or, consider the potential for prospective teachers in the study of how films are used in areas of specialization. When an instructor has future teachers as members of his class, he may make special effort not only to practice good techniques in the use of films but also to call attention to those techniques. He may even provide opportunity for these students to experience planning, using, and evaluating a film as a teaching resource in connection with a particular unit of classwork.

Employing a technique of small-group work in specialization courses is another illustration. This process, if studied by future teachers, will suggest to them factors which contribute to success or failure of small groups, criteria for determining when this technique is appropriate, and skills needed by teacher and pupils to make small groups effective. As is true in general education, the degree to which prospective teachers use experiences in their fields of specialization as professional laboratory experiences depends largely upon the sensitivity of the instructor to this possibility and his willingness to take the time and make the effort to guide these students in analysis of teaching procedures.

Another kind of guidance, appropriate to work in specialization, relates to consideration of the professional use of the content of instruction. This means interpreting the essential content of the area of specialization to help the prospective teacher to understand its use with children and youth of various ages. How does the content relate to the interests and concerns of learners? What are the difficulties encountered in learning in this area? What instructional materials are available and appropriate to various age and ability groups? Questions such as these are the concern of college students who plan to use their work in specialization in teaching. In specialization courses in which all members of the class have teaching as a professional goal, direct attention to such professional problems may be a part of the classwork and include such laboratory experiences as observation and participation in school situations. When students with different professional goals take some of the same courses in a field of specialization, the students' professional interests can be met through differentiated assignments. For example, in a discussion of the production, distribution, and use of electrical energy, those students who are prospective teachers might be given such special assignments as

making a demonstration motor, listing and annotating children's books on electricity, observing teachers and learners working on problems relating to electricity, or helping a group of children wire a playhouse.

Professional Laboratory Experiences Play a Significant Role in Professional Education

Your students are most likely to be working with you in laboratory experiences in connection with their professional education courses, for it is in this part of their teacher education program that future teachers concentrate on getting firsthand experiences with children, youth, and adults in school and community situations. Laboratory experiences in professional courses may range all the way from visiting in an elementary school just to see what schools are like these days to taking complete responsibility for the guidance of a group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks. Some professional laboratory experiences will be engaged in by individual students; others by whole classes. Some will be required as part of the regular college course work; others will be carried on voluntarily. Some will focus on general aspects of teaching, while others will center on intensive study of a detail in the teaching-learning process. Some will be characterized by a student sitting back and actively observing what you do or what a pupil says and does; others by a student actually teaching a small group or a whole class. At other times, college students will be attending faculty or parent meetings, working on a committee of parents, teachers, or children, helping the scout leader with a group, or assisting the recreational leader in the Friday evening open house at the school—all as laboratory experiences contributing to preparation for teaching.

In the pages that follow, laboratory experiences in the professional education aspect of teacher education are considered in greater detail through examination of (1) some illustrative professional education sequences, (2) the range of laboratory experiences provided within the professional sequence, and (3) principles which should govern laboratory experiences.

THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION SEQUENCE AND LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

To assist you in gaining understanding of the professional sequence (and laboratory experiences within it) in the college with which you work, it may be helpful to examine in a general way two professional programs.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM AS OF JUNE 1957 [4]
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE	LABORATORY EXPERIENCES
Elementary *	*Elementary*
Introduction to Teaching in the Elementary School (10 credits) Including learning, child development, measurement, elementary school organization, and curriculum	One two-hour laboratory period per week for one quarter, two two-hour periods second quarter Observation in elementary schools Participation or leadership in youth group
Materials and Methods for teaching reading, arithmetic, English, science, children's literature, social studies, art, and music in elementary schools (24 credits)	Observations and development of units in these areas in elementary schools
Treatment of Learning Difficulties (3 credits)	Observation in psycho-educational clinic
Student Teaching (12 credits)	Continuous contact with one group of children, gradually assuming full responsibility for teaching; half-days for two quarters or full days for one quarter
Secondary †	*Secondary*
Introduction to Secondary School Teaching (10 credits)	One two-hour period per week, two quarters, for observation

* Program for teachers of grades 1 through 8; nursery-kindergarten-primary sequence varies from these requirements.

† Followed by majors in academic subjects; varying programs for special fields (agriculture, industrial education, art, music, physical education). All students (elementary and secondary) also take one course on School and Society. Secondary education students take 8 additional elective credits in professional courses.

[4] As presented by Dean Walter Cook, June, 1957.

Including learning, adolescent development, measurement, organization and curriculum of secondary schools	through closed circuit television and use of kinescopes One two-hour discussion period per week Participation or leadership in youth group
Methods and Student Teaching in major field (11 credits)	Two-hour block per day for entire year, with one-hour teaching period, in high school classroom

The program at the University of Minnesota illustrates a professional sequence which begins in the junior year, following a two-year program in general education. Here, prospective teachers in elementary and secondary education have continuous contact with children or youth in school and community situations throughout the third and fourth years of college preparation for teaching. Note that prospective elementary school teachers have slightly more time allocated to laboratory experiences in school situations than do future secondary school teachers.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM AS OF JUNE 1957 [5]
UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE	LABORATORY EXPERIENCES
COMMON PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION	
Human Growth and Development (3 credits)	Two hours per week for one semester in observation or participation with children or youth in school or community situations
Children and the Culture (3 credits)	Two hours per week for one semester—same as during first year, with increasing participation
DIFFERENTIATED PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION	
Elementary	*Elementary*
Specialized subject matter (18 credits)	Observation in classrooms of elementary schools as appropriate

[5] Adapted from mimeographed material on the professional program and verified by Assistant Dean Kimball Wiles, June, 1957.

Special Methods and Participation (6 credits)	Participation in school programs as appropriate in terms of needs of students and content being dealt with in course
Student Teaching (15 credits)	Full-time experience in rural school followed by full-time in urban school, or vice versa
Designated Electives (22 credits)	
Secondary	*Secondary*
Specialized subject matter (49 credits)	
Principles and Practices in the Secondary School (3 credits)	Fifteen hours of observation in secondary schools
Student Teaching (15 credits)	Ten weeks of full-time work in an off-campus secondary school (campus seminar three weeks full-time each before and after student teaching)
Electives in Education (6 credits)	Selected by student and counselor in terms of student needs

The professional sequence at the University of Florida begins in the freshman year and continues through the four-year program, with added emphasis in time allocation and laboratory experiences in the third and fourth years. This professional sequence illustrates also a provision for experiences common to elementary and secondary school teachers-to-be, with differentiated experiences concentrated in the last two years.

While the students with whom you work may not follow either of these sequences in their professional education, it is likely that their program makes similar provisions for professional laboratory experiences throughout the four years of preparation (example 2) or through concentration on them during the last two years (example 1).

RANGE OF LABORATORY EXPERIENCES IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

From the brief statements on required direct contacts with children and youth in school or community situations, it is not pos-

sible to get a picture of the range of experiences which may be included in a program. In addition to acquainting yourself with the sequence of courses your students may follow, try to learn as much as you can about the specific laboratory experiences they have had both in their courses and in other activities.

Sometimes a college staff group cooperatively plans a range of laboratory experiences they believe all prospective teachers should have. A statement thus prepared becomes a guide for students and their college teachers (and/or advisers) in planning for direct experiences in relation both to specific courses and to out-of-course activities. One such statement, developed cooperatively by a college faculty and students, is summarized here to illustrate the range of laboratory experiences characteristic of some programs.

Content of the Professional Curriculum [6]

STUDYING CHILDREN

1. Making continuous comprehensive studies of the needs of children, in light of the best available knowledge of child behavior and against the background of the requirements of a democratic society.
2. Making comprehensive studies of children as complete individuals functioning in a variety of situations.
3. Working out ways of contributing to the making of changes in the social and economic environment in order that educational objectives may be more fully realized.
4. Studying areas of influence in the child's development—affective relationships, cultural relationships, concept of self, relationships with peers.
5. Studying, planning, and carrying out ways of meeting needs of children.

STUDYING THE CHILD'S COMMUNITY

1. Understanding the forces which play upon the social judgments, the sense of human values, and the personal goals of children and youth.

[6] Adapted from a mimeographed report of a special committee of students and faculty presented to the total faculty of Willimantic State Teachers College (Connecticut), May, 1947.

2. Becoming familiar with the resources available in the community for the education of children and youth.
3. Helping pupils to interpret conflicts found in community life, and wherever possible, to minimize and resolve some of those conflicts.
4. Promoting constructive home and school relationships and sharing educational responsibilities with parents.

PLANNING INSTRUCTION

1. Evaluating the routine, imitative, perfunctory, and mechanical performance now common in some schools.
2. Participating in planning for learning experiences and for creative leadership in the shaping of the learning environment for children and youth:
   a. Understanding the role of general objectives in teaching and learning.
   b. Relating general objectives of education to the local situation.
   c. Learning how to guide pupils' experiences and how to use subject matter and materials effectively.

PARTICIPATING IN CURRICULUM PLANNING

1. Participating in planning the total school curriculum.
2. Participating in planning the total program for a given group of pupils.
3. Making daily plans for a given group.
4. Learning how to enlist the interest and cooperation of pupils in planning a given situation.

ORGANIZING INSTRUCTION

1. Organizing units of learning, activities, and the like, in terms of the general objectives of education and in light of the needs of children and youth in given communities.
2. Organizing the daily program for more effective instruction.

EVALUATING PUPILS' GROWTH

1. Becoming acquainted with basic educational objectives and using techniques designed to reveal the extent to which they are being attained.
2. Revising instructional practices in light of needs revealed in the evaluation of outcomes.
3. Helping children to evaluate their own growth and to set standards of performance for themselves.

PARTICIPATING IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

1. Participating in the development and adoption of policies.
2. Observing the techniques of cooperative administration.
3. Studying school organization and management.
4. Working with members of the school staff.

STUDYING THE BROADER PROBLEMS OF THE PROFESSION

1. Studying the problems of the extension of equal opportunity for education.
2. Becoming aware of the social and economic conflicts which imperil free public education and participating wherever possible in fighting attempts to intimidate and discredit the teaching profession.
3. Studying and participating in efforts designed to work out solutions to problems of security and tenure, salary levels, educational freedom, political interference in school management, corruption in the administration of school funds, and the like.

DEVELOPING GOOD HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

1. Analyzing and developing leadership abilities.
2. Studying and practicing professional ethics.
3. Observing and developing feelings and skills necessary to understanding and accepting peers and others.

PLANNING FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

1. Having genuine concern for self-development.
2. Participating in community activities.
3. Participating in co-curricular activities.
4. Becoming acquainted with resource agencies and professional organizations.
5. Engaging in professional reading.
6. Visiting schools.
7. Doing research.
8. Writing for professional magazines.

Examination of the above statement reveals that students who have a majority of these experiences are having an opportunity to begin their development of competencies needed by today's teachers, as identified in Chapter 2. Students who come to work with you are probably in the process of engaging in a range of

laboratory experiences similar to that suggested in the list developed by this student–faculty group. It is extremely important that you know what kinds of laboratory experiences your student teacher has had and what the specific purposes of his present activities in your room are, as conceived both by his college advisers and by the student himself. With this information at hand, you can provide more clearly for each student's needs.

PRINCIPLES WHICH SHOULD GOVERN PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

The following principles have a significant bearing on your work with college students. They may serve as guides in helping to select and organize activities; they may provide help in your guidance of a specific student in a particular laboratory experience or of several students in a variety of experiences; and they may be employed as evaluative criteria in appraising a total program of laboratory experiences as well as your work with one student.

1. *Professional laboratory experiences should be an integral part of the total program of teacher education.*

Opportunities for direct contact with children, youth, and adults in school and community situations should be provided in all phases of the teacher education program—general education, specialization, and professional education. While students have many direct laboratory experiences as part of their everyday living, to capitalize on desirable learning, laboratory experiences should be a planned part of each year of their college work. Such planning should involve preparation for, guidance during, and careful follow-up of activities. The best contribution is made to students' growth when they are helped to select experiences in terms of their needs, when they are guided in analysis of their experiences, and when what is learned is fed back into their organized program of activities. For this reason laboratory experiences must be part of a total program, not isolated activities unrelated to other learning experiences.

2. *The length and nature of the professional laboratory experience should be determined by the needs of the student and specific factors in the laboratory situation.*

Each student is unique with respect to his individual capacity, his readiness, his purposes and needs. If learning from laboratory experience is to be maximum, each experience must be selected on the basis of the characteristics and needs of the individual student. Hence, student teaching and other laboratory experiences which are rigidly set up with the same requirements for all students do not meet this principle.

Similarly, factors in a given laboratory situation must be taken into account when determining the length and nature of the experience for the student. For example, the particular activities being carried on by pupils may suggest that a student stay in the situation long enough to see learner's growth throughout a complete activity rather than observe or participate in only a segment of their experience, which in itself may be misleading.

To put this principle into practice demands that careful records be kept of students, that these records be adequate to serve as a basis for planning laboratory experience, and that they be used for that purpose. It suggests that there should be individual planning with students. Implementation of this principle calls also for study of laboratory situations, with careful analysis of the factors in each situation which have a bearing upon the student's activity. Selection of the situation and planning for the particular activity to be carried on should be based upon such analysis.

3. *Professional laboratory experiences should be cooperatively planned by all those who are involved in the experience.*

At least three groups of people should be represented in the planning of students' laboratory experiences: (1) college personnel, (2) students, (3) cooperating laboratory personnel. The particular representatives of each of these groups who should cooperate in planning will depend upon the specific experience being planned. For example, if a college class is to go to a school to observe children of a given age group to note their individual

differences and the provisions made for them, then the college instructor teaching the course in human development, the students of the class, and the classroom teacher of the laboratory situation may become the planning group. Or, if, as a result of analysis of their needs, a small group of students in a seminar following student teaching have expressed a desire to spend some time with a principal of a school to gain better understanding of his activities as a leader in curriculum development, then the planning group may include the college teacher of the seminar, the particular small group of college students involved, the principal and his staff in the cooperating center. Or, if the situation is one of selecting student teaching experiences, the planning group may be made up of the student teacher, the college adviser, and the cooperating teacher.

Only when there is cooperative planning for laboratory experiences by all those involved can there be adequate understanding to enable participants to profit most from the activity. Without such cooperative planning, communication is likely to be inadequate and to result in misunderstanding and, finally, in less than the best experience for the student.

4. *Guidance of the student during laboratory experiences should be the joint responsibility of those persons involved.*

When college instructors require or suggest laboratory experiences for students in their classes, they should assume responsibility not only for planning for the experience but also for following students through the experience and taking part in careful guidance of them. This means that college instructors should themselves get into every laboratory situation where their students are working and should participate with laboratory personnel in working with students. Obviously, it means that the person in charge of the laboratory where the student is working is a key figure in the guidance of the student.

When students engage in laboratory activities without the joint guidance of their advisers in the college and in the center, several disadvantages may result: (1) the laboratory experience may tend to be seen in isolation by the student, rather than as an integral

part of his total preparation for teaching; (2) the student may tend to profit less from the experience because of the lack of opportunity to relate it to other kinds of experiences he is having or has had, such as reading, listening, and discussing in college classes; (3) the student may find himself in a position of conflict or frustration due to the differences in expectancies of college instructors and cooperating personnel. It is of vital importance to the quality of a laboratory experience that both college and cooperating staff members join forces in guiding the student.

5. *Evaluation of the student's growth through laboratory experience should be the joint responsibility of those persons working with him.*

Principles 3, 4, and 5 when taken together simply call for cooperative work on the part of involved parties in all aspects of laboratory experiences. That experiences must be cooperatively planned and guided is indicated in principles 3 and 4. Principle 5 carries the process one step further and implies that student growth must be cooperatively evaluated. It is almost unbelievable that teacher educators with special responsibility for laboratory experiences would fail to observe this principle. Yet, there still exist situations in which evaluation of the student is carried on without regard for the evidence which would be forthcoming from cooperative evaluation.

What does this principle suggest for the evaluation of students' learning as a result of observation in a classroom, for example? Certainly it makes clear that when college teachers ask students to write reports of observations, such reports cannot be evaluated without the participation of the classroom teacher observed. Furthermore, the college teacher is in poor position to judge such reports unless he was in the classroom and made the observation also.

And, how does this principle relate to evaluation of student teachers working in your classroom? It suggests that you, the student, and the college supervisor become partners in the entire evaluation process—clarifying the goals, determining the kinds of evidence that can be used for appraising progress, gathering evidence, interpreting evidence, drawing conclusions on the basis of

evidence, and planning action to be taken as a result of the evaluation. Only when all the steps in the evaluation process are engaged in cooperatively can the evaluation take into account what is known about the individual and the situation and can the necessary evidence be available. Only cooperative evaluation will result in planning with the student next steps which are pertinent to his needs and which can be carried out effectively.

6. *A program of professional laboratory experiences should include some full-time student teaching to provide acquaintance with the range of the teacher's work and its interlocking relationships.*

While the benefits of short laboratory experiences calling for observation and participation by the student are many, there are certain kinds of experiences all prospective teachers should have which cannot be had without some opportunity to spend full time in a school situation. Unless a student has such a chance, he probably leaves his college preparation for teaching without ever knowing what it is like to be responsible for a group of pupils for all their activities over a period of time. Many beginning teachers meet very serious problems because they have not had an opportunity during their student teaching to learn what it is like to carry complete responsibility for a group of learners in all of their activities. This opportunity can be provided only when the student devotes his full time to student teaching. Many who have not had opportunities to work with parents or as members of a professional staff team succeed very well in those aspects of their work directly related to children or youth, but have very real difficulty with the adults who are their peers and their patrons.

Student purposes in student teaching might be . . .

- To gain understanding and competence in guiding a group of learners in all of their activities.
- To get the "feeling" of being a teacher, to feel the rewards and satisfactions which come from continuous growth of learners over a period of time.
- To build a concept of the complete job of the teacher, with understanding of the range of activities and roles which a teacher plays.

- To develop a philosophy, including guiding principles, through testing ideas in practice, analyzing consequences, and modifying or strengthening theoretical concepts.
- To discover needs, through experience in a range of responsibilities, and to plan activities to meet those needs.
- To acquire a satisfying and intimate relationship to a profession through participation in its organizations and activities.

It is perfectly clear that if students are to be helped to achieve such purposes as those listed above, they must have opportunities to participate in all the activities of a teacher over a period of time long enough to see results of their efforts.

7. *Situations selected for laboratory experiences should provide contact for the student with a range and variety of learners and activities.*

All prospective teachers should have some opportunity to work in representative school situations—classrooms and schools where learners, materials, equipment, and activities are representative of the kinds which will be met by the teacher as he assumes a position in the field. Likewise, all programs of laboratory experiences should make some provision for the student to see the best that is possible—to observe artistic teachers, to work with the best materials and equipment, to guide learners in experiences that are wholly consistent with what is known about children and how they learn, and about the needs of society. Future teachers should have opportunities to work with boys and girls of different abilities from all socio-economic levels.

As you work with college students in your classroom and school, you are a most important influence on these future teachers. It is to your advantage to be well-informed on the total program of the institution from which they come. Of particular significance is the need for you to participate with college personnel in planning, so that you may approach your work with students armed with understanding of the goals of the total program of teacher education and of the students' specific purposes in relation to their experiences with you. Principles governing laboratory experiences have been suggested in this chapter which will serve

as general guides to you in your work. How you may make specific application of these principles in your everyday work with college students is treated in detail in the chapters that follow.

Before turning to a consideration of your particular functions and ways of performing your tasks effectively, it is important to take a closer look at college students. Just as in working with your pupils you need to be informed about their general characteristics and to have skills for studying them as individuals, so, too, you need such information and skills in relation to college students as you undertake guidance of them in learning experiences. The next chapter presents an overview of some of the important things you should know about college students in general and makes some suggestions on how you may go about learning to know the particular students with whom you work.

4

COLLEGE STUDENTS AS LEARNERS

THE main business of the school is to help boys and girls to learn. While there are numerous functions which teachers must serve, their chief responsibility is to arrange both the physical and emotional factors in the learning environment so that opportunities to learn are maximal. To offer the best environment, the teacher must be equipped, first, with clear understanding and conviction relating to what he is trying to help children and youth to learn, and second, with equally clear understanding of conditions which assist boys and girls in learning.

You are a teacher of teachers when you are operating in your teacher education role. Like your chief responsibility with pupils, your main obligation in working with future teachers is to condition their learning environment so that maximum opportunity for learning surrounds them. Chapter 2 of this book deals with the first essential for you in determining how to arrange the environment—a clear conception of what it is you are trying to help prospective teachers to learn. The second necessary part of your equipment is clear understanding of what factors seem to assist future teachers in learning to be the kind of teachers de-

sired. The present chapter deals with this important aspect of your competence as a cooperating teacher.

For help in conditioning the learning environment for future teachers it is necessary to go to the relatively young science of psychology and its application to education. While much remains to be discovered, the findings now available throw some light on learning, learners, and the learning situation.

WHAT OUGHT TO BE KNOWN TO GUIDE LEARNING

What is learning? Finding a meaningful and acceptable answer to this question is not easy. Psychologists themselves have not arrived at a satisfactory and complete definition of learning. Definitions found in the literature tend to be related to aspects of the learning process but do not provide exact analysis of what the process itself really is. However, there are at least two elements in a situation where learning occurs which can be isolated for study—the learner and the environment in which he learns. Each of these elements has been the subject of much study, as has the interaction between the two. A brief résumé of what appear to be important findings regarding the learner and the learning environment will bear directly on our consideration of what cooperating teachers ought to know about learning as a basis for work with college students.

Know as Much as Possible about the Learner as He Comes to the Learning Situation

Benjamin and Jean are student teachers working with Mr. Fisk. It is their third day and they are sitting at a table in the back of the room, observing, while two groups of pupils are reporting to the class on the results of interviews with recreational leaders. As agreed in their planning session the day before, Mr. Fisk, Benjamin, and Jean are taking notes on the group reports. Looking over Ben's shoulder we see in his notes:

2 : 15 Bill introduces the character his group interviewed.
Jack gives data on the first question.
Charlene is scared to talk; can't hear her.

Mr. Fisk's paper shows:

2 : 15 I should not have encouraged Bill to chair this group.
Remember next time to check interview guide.
Charlene has a new dress—talks better than ever.

And on Jean's pad is written:

2 : 15 What should you do when Bill isn't prepared?
Why didn't they ask about how to get some money?
Isn't she a sweet girl—Charlene?

Here are three people watching the same activity and hearing the same words, but they note different things. It appears that they see and hear different things and it is obvious that they are thinking different things as they take their notes. Why?

The answer to this "why?" is one of the most important considerations in the guidance of all learners; it is one of the findings about learners that you need to take into account in planning for and managing the environment in your classroom. Often we speak of the principle of individual differences, that each individual is unique and provision must be made for his particular needs, interests, and abilities. But how are Benjamin, Jean, and Mr. Fisk different? Is it a matter only of their capacity to learn? No, it is not, for there is much more to the differences among individuals than the range of native ability.

Some psychologists use the term "readiness" to describe the sum of all the factors about the individual which make him able to react in certain ways to arrangements in his environment. Others refer to the learner's "organized pattern of responding" to situations. Still others use the term "motivation" to include forces which cause the individual to respond as he does to stimuli in the environment. The particular terminology is not important here. It is necessary to recognize, however, that the individual who comes to any learning situation is predisposed to behave in certain ways and that this predisposition is the result of his previous experiences.

What the learner is as the result of what has happened to him in the past—his attitudes, knowledge, interests, feelings—makes him different from every other individual. And what he is causes him to be selective in terms of the opportunities for learning available in any situation. Sometimes the learner is aware of choices

he is making and therefore makes them quite deliberately. At other times, he is unaware of how his own selectivity is operating in the situation because of the limitations his unique background places on his perception. In other words, he cannot see, hear, feel, or think about a person, thing, or event in the learning environment because of his past experience. This suggests that when you are working with a student you should be careful not to ascribe to him carelessness, laziness, lack of interest, or other such characteristics without first checking his perceptions of the situation.

When a group of students from a college class are observing in your room, each person brings to the observation a unique background of attitudes, interests, abilities, and feelings; each is actually ready and able to perceive different things in the situation. While they are all supposedly having the same experience, engaging in the same activity, each is having his individual experience in terms of what he sees and how he reacts to what he sees. Because each perceives differently, each learns differently from the experience. You, therefore, cannot expect all students to see the same things or to react in the same ways to what goes on in your classroom.

In addition to helping you to recognize the validity of differences in what students see and react to, this concept of individual differences has other implications for your work. It suggests that the better you understand the learner, the better able you are to condition the environment so that it includes a wide range of possibilities appropriate to his powers of selection and reaction. It means, also, that when an individual actually needs to acquire certain learnings, as do student teachers because of their professional goal, but he seems unable to see, or understand, or do what is desirable, then he needs experience which will build his readiness.

Let us look at an illustration of this point. Here is a student teacher leading a planning session with a group of children. The student allows the same three children to make most of the contributions; he seems to be unaware that other children want to talk; he doesn't really listen to what is said, he seems to turn children's comments around so that they are his own; he doesn't see that a small group on the side of the circle is engaged in a battle of words among themselves.

You observe these inadequacies in the student's leadership. In order to help him, you will have to provide experiences through which the student may modify his ability to see and do in such a situation. You may do this by talking with him, by discussing the backgrounds of certain children in the group, by cooperatively evaluating your teaching in a similar situation, or by guiding him in several small units of activity related to the larger one of leading a class discussion.

In using any of these procedures, you are arranging the learning environment so that he may select experiences that have meaning to him in terms of what he is trying to accomplish and in relation to the background he brings to the activity. You are teaching; the student is learning, because the outcome of learning is modification of the student—the reorganization of his feelings, attitudes, skills, knowledge, interests, and abilities. It is the modified student who comes to the next experience able to see and relate to new and different things.

Consider the Learning Environment of the Prospective Teacher in Your Classroom

We have seen how everything that the individual is, knows, and feels comes to the learning situation. As the learner must be viewed whole, so must the environment. To describe a learning environment is difficult because much of it is intangible and, in one sense, it is individual.

The physical factors in the environment can be defined. There are chairs and tables, chalkboards, bulletin boards, floor space, windows, lights, ventilators, books and other materials, equipment of various kinds, and so on. These things can be shown in their number and relationships and it is possible thereby to get a picture of the physical setting in a classroom.

But there are people in the learning situation, too, at least a teacher and other pupils. Each person is a part of the learner's environment. And each person is like the learner; he brings with him all that he is. The teacher, for example, brings all his feelings about children and youth, about teaching, about the school, about the standards that are held, about what the curriculum ought to

be, about parents and other teachers, and most important of all, about himself as a teacher and as a person. The pupils also bring to the environment their pride, their aggression, their hatred, and their love; they bring their attitudes, knowledge, skills, and feelings. All that each person is has the potential of determining the nature of the learning environment in the classroom.

That is not all, for there exists among all the persons a web of relationships which is as much a part of the learning environment as the books, tables and chairs, and other physical equipment. The dynamics of these interpersonal relationships, as you well know from your own experience, make a tremendous difference in how people respond to other factors in the environment.

All of these factors—the physical setting, the people and their interrelationships—are present in the learning environment of the college student working in your room. As was indicated in the previous section, each student will see and react to different aspects of his environment. Because any learner is able to respond only to those things for which his previous experience has prepared him, he actually is operating in a unique learning situation. For him, the environment includes only what he sees and feels, both positively and negatively.

When you think about your responsibility in arranging the learning environment for college students, you will need to give attention to the whole environment. Your attitudes toward having students in your room, your feelings about the students as people, your confidence in your teaching ability, your relationships with pupils—these and a host of other things about yourself are factors in the students' environment. Similarly, pupils' expectations of the students, their perception of your attitude toward having the students, their feelings about adults in general, their conception of what a teacher ought to do, and many other things affect the learning environment of college students. These almost intangible aspects of the environment are often more significant than the material qualities present.

One additional idea concerning the learning environment should be mentioned at this point because of its importance to future teachers working with you. That is, people tend to learn better when the situation is free from fear and undesirable tension. While fear is a feeling that resides in the individual and is the

concomitant of previous or current related experiences, the learning environment can be arranged either to accent fear or gradually to remove it. For example, many students have some fear when they come to student teaching. This is due to a variety of reasons, different for each student, but chiefly this fear is related to students' realization that much of their immediate future depends upon success in this undertaking. If you recognize that your students may have some fear, then you can begin to condition the environment so that early experiences in student teaching help to remove this fear.

CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE LEARNING EXPERIENCES OF FUTURE TEACHERS

What has been said here about learning and the learner suggests that you need to be aware of all the conditions which make up the setting in which you are trying to help future teachers to develop the desired competencies. The implication that you should do everything possible to understand each individual is clear. Before turning attention to what you may do to build an understanding of college students as learners, there is need to consider some of the particular kinds of learnings that are crucial in inducting young people into the profession of teaching.

As a teacher, you are aware of the range of responsibilities which members of the profession are called upon to assume. You are sensitive to the many different kinds of skills, the scope of knowledge, the types of attitudes, and the kinds of interests a teacher must have if he is to be effective. Of the competencies needed by all teachers, two are selected for discussion here as especially crucial to teaching success. These competencies are *generalizing* and *problem solving*.

Give Special Attention to Helping Prospective Teachers to Generalize

No two teaching situations are identical. Each teacher is a unique individual with his own capacities, attitudes, skills, values, interests. Every group of children and youth has its peculiar group qualities which make it different from every other group. Each school situation has its own individual character, its own

community setting, its own tradition. Because of these, and other factors which might be mentioned, the decisions a teacher makes on specific procedures and techniques and learning activities must be based on the specific nature of the situation—the school, the community, the teacher himself, the learners, materials of instruction, and so on.

There are general guides, however, which teachers may use in making specific decisions. These guides should be part of the equipment of every teacher. They may be called generalizations or principles. You cannot be sure that the particular decisions you make in the classroom where students are now observing or working are the right specific decisions for the situation where a student may be working next year. But, you can be sure that the principles on which you base your decisions are the same principles which will have direct bearing on students' decisions in the years ahead. (Current generalizations about learning and the guidance of learning are based upon investigations to date. It is to be expected that, as more investigations are carried on, more information will become available and principles will be modified as a result.)

One reason, therefore, for being particularly concerned with helping students to develop generalizations is that while specific ways of doing things may not be applicable in their future teaching, principles will have implications for their work every day. There is another important reason. When the teacher's job was almost entirely technical, when his role was to carry out the directions of other people, when the educational program was clearly set up in advance and without relation to a particular group of learners—then it was not so important for the teacher to understand the bases for decisions nor the "why" behind what he was doing. But this is not the situation today, nor is it ever likely to be in the future of our democracy. Today the individual classroom teacher is an active participant in making decisions, both those of a general nature arrived at by groups working cooperatively and those of a special nature arrived at by the teacher, or teacher and learners, within the classroom. Hence, teachers for today's schools must have clear principles to serve as guides; they must have fundamental understanding of the "why" of what they propose to do.

If having a set of educational principles to guide teachers is so important, then one of your responsibilities is to help student teachers develop these principles. Throughout this book there are suggestions on how you may provide experiences which help students build their own principles. Here we are concerned with learning—particularly how students acquire generalizations or principles.

Generalizations, or principles, are statements which refer to relationships that may be expected to exist between or among components in a situation. They are arrived at through many and varied experiences in which a given relationship is observed to prevail. For example, a student teacher observes . . .

> That your face lights up and you become more vivacious when you are teaching music.
>
> That Francis comes to him and wants to read something he has found about salmon fishing but that Francis sulks when he joins a reading group using a basic reader.
>
> That he, himself, gets excited and works hard getting ready to teach his science group but that he wants to escape getting ready for the social studies unit.
>
> That Patricia brought in displays, wanted to make a special report, and was a good group chairman when the group was working on industries of the community (her father is an industrialist) but that when the group began working on government agencies in the community she lost her enthusiasm.

As this student teacher continues to observe he begins to see that there exists some relationship between interest and the attitude and effort one takes to a learning situation. Having gotten this hunch, he then begins to observe particularly for evidence of it and also tries to test the idea in what he does with pupils. In the process of forming the hunch and testing it in practice, he may also do some reading, view some films, or participate in discussion about the idea. When he has adequate experience to test the idea and find that it is sound, he then forms the generalization for himself. This generalization (or principle) becomes a guide to him as he plans and carries out his plans in teaching.

It is important that as you work with students you help them in every way possible to formulate generalizations. Guiding them in discovering relationships and testing them in practice

calls for: (1) checking with students regularly on what they observe and their reactions to it; (2) providing time for students to talk about their ideas, always exploring for the why or causes of behavior, events, or feelings; (3) raising questions that will cause the students to search for relationships; (4) sharing with students your own generalizations when planning for teaching or discussing what has happened; (5) helping students to put into words what they sense as a relationship; (6) providing opportunity for them to test ideas in practice; (7) being sure that evidence is studied carefully when ideas are tested; and (8) helping students to analyze many possible implications of the generalization that has been formulated.

Provide Opportunity for Prospective Teachers to Build Skills in and to Learn through Problem Solving

Much of a teacher's professional life is spent in solving problems of one kind or another. For example:

> I don't feel comfortable around the principal. I feel a strained relationship when I talk to him. How can I build a better relationship with him?
>
> Half the children in this class seem to show an unusual need for affection. What role should I play in meeting this need? How much should I be able to do on this? How can I go about helping to meet this need?
>
> From my study of the situation, it is clear to me that Caroline has aspirations beyond her capacity. How shall I go about guiding her so that she does not become frustrated because of this?
>
> Several parents have come to me to say they don't believe the schools are teaching subject matter the way they should. Mr. Thomas says that he wants his boy to be an engineer and therefore he demands that he be made to get his math. That boy is not at all interested in being an engineer, nor does he care about math. How can I help both him and his father?

These four problems represent only a very small sampling of the kinds of problems with which teachers must deal constantly. A good teacher does not deal with such problems by taking the easy way out, acting on the spur of the moment in whatever way comes first to mind, or by-passing them. One of the earmarks of the pro-

fessionally alert teacher is that he takes deliberate action on such problems. In other words, he analyzes a problem, thinks systematically through a variety of ways of approaching it, considers consequences, makes the best decision he can in terms of what he knows about the situation, and acts on his decision. Such an approach shows a positive attitude toward problem solving and skill in acting on thinking. To develop this attitude and this skill is a fundamental goal of teacher education.

This method of problem solving is not only the most desirable way to deal with problems but also one of the best ways of learning. Hence, in your work with students, you will want to help them use a deliberate approach to solving problems both as a way of learning and as practice in building skill in problem solving. You can provide help in problem solving for your students by being sure that they actually face problems which call for deliberative action and by assisting them in consideration of alternatives.

Being sure that students encounter real problems is not as easy as it appears on the surface. Often cooperating teachers and supervisors, college teachers, and other adults working with college students actually deny them opportunities for dealing with real problems by the way in which they guide them. For example, sometimes classroom teachers working with student teachers make the important decisions themselves and then ask students to carry them out. This is illustrated when the teacher decides what learning activity shall be provided and what materials shall be used and then asks the student to formulate plans for carrying out the activity. While it is true that in this case the student may encounter some problems and need to make decisions on them, the fact is that the major problems have already been solved by the teacher. And, if that teacher does not take time to discuss with the student the bases for decisions which have already been made, the student has had virtually no opportunity to deal realistically with the problem of selection of learning activities.

Similarly, when the classroom teacher decides how a youth with a particular problem shall be helped and then informs the student teacher and requests him to carry out the teacher's plans, the student is denied the chance to examine the problem and consider alternative ways of dealing with it. In other words, he neither has the chance to learn from going through the problem-solving expe-

rience himself, nor does he have the opportunity to build skill in using the procedure.

In working with your students, you will want to be sure that they have every opportunity possible for meeting real problems in the classroom and in the school. This will call for your taking time to share your own process in reaching a solution, defining carefully your analysis of the problem, discussing your consideration of alternative solutions, and explaining your bases for choice of action. Having shared your problem-solving procedures with the student, you will want to have him begin to go through the process with you while you assist him in the various steps. Later, of course, you need to see to it that he has a variety of chances to engage in problem solving himself in situations where you can observe his skill and guide him in evaluating the results. When teachers have such experiences in their preservice programs, they are much more likely to continue to use a deliberate approach to their problems and, in so doing, to improve their skill continuously.

GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

In your work with children or youth you are constantly improving your knowledge about them as a group and as individuals. You are greatly assisted in this task by information which has been accumulated over the years by experts in human growth and development. Through your acquaintance with this information you are aware of the common developmental tasks being faced by pupils in your group and you have built some educational principles which help guide you in your teaching. This information, which gives you only general expectancies of learners, is not sufficient as a complete basis for making teaching decisions. Each group and every individual possesses differences about which you must inform yourself if you are to guide them effectively. Consequently, you have acquired skills and techniques which you employ regularly to study your particular group of children or youth. Just as in guiding the experiences of boys and girls in your class you need to know what may be expected of them in general and the unique needs of each, so as a teacher educator you need to know college students as a basis for working with them.

To give, at this point, a complete picture of what is known about

college-age students is quite impossible. However, it is useful to consider the kinds of information which aid in understanding college students and to examine enough illustrative material to suggest further study as you proceed in your work as a teacher educator. In this section attention is focused on a brief look at some of the accumulated knowledge about late adolescents and young adults in each of the following four areas: (1) basic human needs, (2) developmental tasks, (3) objectives of behavior, and (4) common problems. Finally, there is consideration of the significance of such knowledge for your work with future teachers.

Some Basic Needs Are Common to All Human Beings

College students share with all other members of the human race certain basic needs—needs which motivate much of their behavior. These basic human needs are variously categorized by psychologists and anthropologists. Snygg and Combs present a point of view centered in the premise that the most basic need of all human beings is the need to enhance the self.[1] While there is not agreement on this point, examination of the analyses of basic needs presented by other authors supports the importance Snygg and Combs attach to this concept. For example, note in the list developed by Cole (which follows) what a large proportion of the needs identified have to do with making oneself comfortable, feeling secure in the physical and social environment, being assured one is liked and is doing what is expected of one:

THE BASIC HUMAN NEEDS [2]

A. BODILY NEEDS
1. Need to go on living
2. Need to avoid danger
3. Need to relax
4. Need to recover when ill or injured
5. Need to overcome handicaps

[1] Snygg, Donald and Combs, Arthur, *Individual Behavior.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949.

[2] As reported in Luella Cole, *Psychology of Adolescence*, p. 112. New York: Rinehart and Company, Fourth Edition, 1954. (Modified and rearranged from a list given in R. N. Sanford *et al.*, *Physique, Personality, and Scholarship; a Co-operative Study of School Children*, p. 235. National Research Council, 1943; from a questionnaire based upon selection of needs, in L. Raths and L. Metcalf, "An Instrument for Identifying Some Needs of Children," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 24:169–185, 1945; and from H. Schacter, *How Personalities Grow*, Chap. 3. McKnight & McKnight, 1949.)

B. PERSONAL NEEDS
1. Need to grow
2. Need to be normal
3. Need to have and keep possessions
4. Need to overcome difficulties
5. Need to be loved
6. Need to feel secure
7. Need to escape blame
8. Need to express oneself
9. Need to seek thrills and excitement
10. Need to seek some form of sexual expression
11. Need for independence

C. SOCIAL NEEDS
1. Need to have friends
2. Need to be popular
3. Need to be a leader
4. Need to follow a leader
5. Need to control others
6. Need to protect others
7. Need to imitate others
8. Need to have prestige
9. Need to seek praise
10. Need to resist coercion
11. Need to oppose others

D. INTELLECTUAL NEEDS
1. Need to think
2. Need to acquire facts
3. Need to think out explanations
4. Need to relate and interpret facts
5. Need to organize
6. Need to work toward a goal
7. Need to believe in something outside oneself

Basic human needs are the same for the youngsters you teach, for the college students who work with you, and for you and your colleagues. It is true that these needs take on different shades and intensities in various environments, in different individuals, and at different stages of human development. Yet, all people have them in one form or another. Hence, one of your concerns in working with learners is to be aware of such basic human needs and to respect them in your guidance of learners—both pupils and college students. Many of the principles presented in this book, and the specific suggestions for implementing them, are oriented in a respect for basic human needs.

College Adolescents Face Similar Developmental Tasks

Like all other groups of human beings, college students present a wide range of differences in their growth and development, their abilities, interests, needs, and attitudes. Some are still facing the developmental tasks of early adolescence and others are clearly concerned with those tasks usually ascribed to early adulthood.

Then, too, each college student has his own growth pattern, which is usually characterized by irregular growth in various aspects—mental, physical, social, and emotional.

In considering common characteristics or developmental tasks of any age group, the factor of individual differences must be kept in mind. As is true of your study of children and youth, general information about the age group of which college students are a part serves only to suggest what common expectancies you may have concerning their behavior and causes of it. But, such general information is basic to your further study of each individual student.

A statement of the developmental tasks of adolescence has been formulated by Havighurst. His analysis includes a description of the goals related to each task, the biological, psychological, and cultural bases of the task, and implications for education. From his complete analysis, the following excerpts are quoted here to present the range of tasks that confront adolescents:

Task	Nature of the Task
Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes	To learn to look upon girls as women and boys as men; to become an adult among adults; to learn to work with others for a common purpose, disregarding personal feelings; to learn to lead without dominating.
Achieving a masculine or feminine social role	To accept and to learn a socially approved masculine or feminine social role.
Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively	To become proud, or at least tolerant, of one's body; to use and protect one's body effectively and with personal satisfaction.
Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults	To become free from childish dependence on parents; to develop affection for parents without dependence upon them; to develop respect for older adults without dependence upon them.
Achieving assurance of economic independence	To feel able to make a living, if necessary. This is primarily a task for boys, in our society, but it is of increasing importance to girls.

Task	Nature of the Task
Selecting and preparing for an occupation	To choose an occupation for which one has the necessary ability; to prepare for this occupation.
Preparing for marriage and family life	To develop a positive attitude toward family life and having children; and (mainly for girls) to get the knowledge necessary for home management and child rearing.
Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence	To develop concepts of law, government, economics, politics, geography, human nature, and social institutions which fit the modern world; to develop language skills and reasoning ability necessary for dealing effectively with the problems of a modern democracy.
Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior	To participate as a responsible adult in the life of the community, region, and nation; to take account of the values of society in one's personal behavior.
Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior	To form a set of values that are possible of realization; to develop a conscious purpose of realizing these values; to define man's place in the physical world and in relation to other human beings; to keep one's world picture and one's values in harmony with each other. Definition: a value is an object or state of affairs which is desired.[3]

Some of your college students will be dealing with those tasks commonly ascribed to early adulthood. As identified by Havighurst, the chief tasks of this period are:

Selecting a mate
Learning to live with a marriage partner
Starting a family
Rearing children

[3] Havighurst, Robert J., *Developmental Tasks and Education,* pp. 33–71, *passim.* 2nd ed. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1952.

Managing a home
Getting started in an occupation
Taking on civic responsibility
Finding a congenial social group [4]

The first of these tasks is especially important for college students. Individuals working in your room in one capacity or another may in fact be in the midst of this "most interesting and most disturbing" task. Indeed, you will need to keep in mind that interest and action in relation to this particular task may very well be the cause of behavior you find difficult to comprehend.

Adolescents Have Some Objectives in Common

Within eight different categories, Cole presents an analysis of the objectives of adolescents by indicating what they are trying to achieve:

OBJECTIVES OF THE ADOLESCENT PERIOD

A. General emotional maturity
   1. Harmless or constructive expressions (of emotions)
   2. Objective interpretation of situations
   3. Adult stimuli to emotions
   4. Habits of facing and solving conflicts

B. Establishment of heterosexual interests
   1. Interest in members of opposite sex
   2. Selection of one mate
   3. Casual acceptance of sexual maturity

C. General social maturity
   1. Feelings of acceptance by peers
   2. Social poise
   3. Social tolerance
   4. Freedom from slavish imitation

D. Emancipation from home control
   1. Self-control
   2. Reliance upon self for security
   3. Attitude toward parents and friends

E. Intellectual maturity
   1. Demand for evidence before acceptance
   2. Desire for explanations
   3. Few, stable interests

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 74–82, *passim.*

F. Selection of occupation
   1. Interest in practical occupations
   2. Interest in few occupations
   3. Accurate estimate of ability
   4. Reconciliation of ability and interests

G. Uses of leisure
   1. Interest in team games
   2. Interest in success of team
   3. Spectator interest in games
   4. Interest in few hobbies
   5. Membership in a few clubs

H. Philosophy of life
   1. Interest in general principles
   2. Generalized moral principles
   3. Behavior based upon conscience and duty [5]

As a teacher working with college students you will need to keep in mind always the common tasks and characteristics of this age group. When you do this, you will tend to view as normal behavior what might otherwise be disturbing to you. You will find that your feelings toward your college students are sympathetic and understanding because you recognize developmental tasks, biosocial in nature, which they are facing.

College Life Presents Certain Problems to Students

Problems which college students encounter in seeking to achieve their objectives appear in many forms. Some are clear and direct expressions of difficulties in maturing—accomplishing the developmental tasks. Others are symptoms of deeper disturbances; still others are minor, having only immediate significance. Hurlock has this to say about problems facing college students today:

> Problems of the greatest seriousness to the college student of today are those relating to college work, vocational choice and preparation for the chosen vocation, personal-psychological adjustments, family relationships, and finances. . . .
>
> The older adolescent is concerned with problems relating to his college grades, his ability to graduate, and how to study effectively . . . ; problems related to selecting a career, his ability for the chosen career, the training needed, and the opportunities available . . . ; social adjustment problems related to shyness, feelings

[5] Cole, Luella, *op. cit.*, pp. 6–7.

> of inferiority, social sensitivity, and making friends . . . ; family problems centered on parental discord, divorce or separation of the parents, adjustment to the death of one parent or the remarriage of a parent, and conflicts with parents . . . ; problems related to money, especially money needed for college expenses . . . ; and sex problems related to conduct, behavior, and experience. . . .[6]

Problems of college students as they themselves identified them are reported by Cole.[7] In connection with classwork, students said their greatest difficulties included unclear and too long assignments, uninteresting and too hard textbooks, too little attention to individual needs, too little guidance in selecting courses, and teachers who did not understand them as people, overestimated their ability, were indifferent to their welfare. They reported problems in their own social adjustment in college, including these: being away from home, ignorance of how to make social contacts, too much freedom, social isolation, inability to handle money, too much outside work, and friction with parents. Difficulties caused by personal inadequacies, as indicated by students, included constant fatigue, inadequate methods of study, inability to concentrate, ineffective budgeting of time, feelings of inferiority and insecurity, fear of examinations, and timidity in class.

Much of the behavior of your students is quite naturally caused by their particular stage of development and the tasks characteristic of that stage. You will save yourself and your students much misunderstanding if you view their behavior in proper focus—against a backdrop of their normal problems and characteristics. Too, you will provide more effective guidance and they will respond more adequately to your guidance when it is based on your willingness to try to understand them as individuals at the stage of later adolescence and in transition to adulthood.

BECOMING ACQUAINTED WITH SPECIFIC GROUPS AND INDIVIDUALS

In studying the particular college students who work with you, you will employ much the same skills and techniques you use in getting to know your pupils. Among the more productive meth-

[6] Hurlock, Elizabeth B., *Adolescent Development*, pp. 13–14. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955.

[7] Cole, Luella, *The Backgrounds for College Teaching*, p. 204. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1940.

ods for increasing your understanding of college students are: (1) study of cumulative records, (2) observation of students under varying conditions and in different situations, (3) conversations and conferences with them, (4) analysis of special types of written work, (5) use of personal data forms, and (6) participation in planning in relation to the total college program. Throughout this book, suggestions are made on the use of these and other techniques for gathering information about your college students at times when such data are most significant. In this section, each of these six techniques is discussed briefly, with the intention of setting the stage for their more detailed consideration later.

Study of Cumulative Records Is a Basis for Learning to Know Your College Students

Available records on students will differ widely from one institution to the next. Ideally, there should be for each college student a folder which would present in organized form all data essential for knowing his background, present concerns, and future aspirations. This would include a personal and an educational history of the student prior to his entrance to the institution; the results of various measures employed to establish his status and purposes during and following orientation to the college; his program of studies with appropriate evaluation of his work; records of his activities in the college and the community; data from his contacts with guidance and personnel staff members and reports of their observations of him; his health record; and comments by college instructors who have worked with him. Contributions to such a cumulative record of a college student should be made by all persons who have personal or professional association with him. Important among the contributors to the record should be the student himself.

Availability of materials, such as those suggested here for a cumulative record, is crucial to their usefulness. Unless information on the student is collected and filed in one spot, it will be difficult for staff members (yourself included) to expend the necessary time and effort to locate all desired pieces of data.

Unless those who guide the student make appropriate use of data from records, the chances are that any system of recording will disintegrate from lack of purpose.

It is to be hoped that the institution with which you are affiliated has good cumulative records which are easily accessible to you and that you are encouraged and assisted in making use of them. Among the materials in such a record that would be of particular significance to your work with college students might be . . .

- Statements from the student himself which reveal his attitudes and feelings about his work, the rationale of his vocational choice, and his personal concerns.
- His general home and school background, with any evidence of persistent interests, needs, abilities, and attitudes.
- Work he has taken in college and staff reactions to his work.
- Nature of experience he has had with children and youth in school or community situations, both prior to college and during his college program.
- Information on the economic status of the student, amount and type of remunerative work in which he has engaged or is now engaged.
- Records of interviews with counselors and others which reveal specific problems the student has had and his success in dealing with them, as well as evidence of those problems on which the student needs to work.

The administration of a program of professional laboratory experiences should be such that you know which students are going to be working with you before they present themselves in your classroom. One important reason for your having this information is to enable you to study the students' records in preparation for meeting and doing your first planning with them. This is especially important when students are going to be engaged in some extensive laboratory experience with you, such as continuous participation or student teaching over a semester.

When small groups of college students are coming to your classroom as part of their work in connection with a specific college class, the instructor and students should make available to you appropriate background data. In this instance, you probably

would not examine the cumulative records of all individuals but would depend upon the college instructor to select and report to you information particularly significant for your guidance of the students in their laboratory experience.

Before leaving this brief discussion of cumulative records, your contribution to them should be noted. In at least three ways you make a particularly important contribution to college students' cumulative records: (1) As the individual working most closely with a student in professional laboratory experiences, your analysis of his strengths and his needs as a prospective teacher takes on unusual significance because you see him in a practical situation and have an opportunity to discover his capacity to implement theory in practice. Data which you record in this connection are important to those who work with the student in subsequent student teaching or other laboratory experiences and to employing officials who are most interested in his ability to work in a teaching situation. (2) In intensive laboratory experiences like student teaching you have an opportunity to learn to know a student somewhat better than most of his college instructors do, both because you usually work with fewer students at a time and because you are likely to work more closely with each student. This means that you are in a peculiarly significant position to contribute information vital to the student's success as a teacher. (3) Evidence shows a high correlation between a student's success in student teaching as judged by those who supervise this experience and his success as a teacher in the field. Consequently, employing officials tend to be more concerned about what you record on the student teacher's accomplishments than about what is recorded on other aspects of his college work. What you contribute to the record as a result of close guidance of a student teacher actually becomes very important to the student's future employment and to the attitudes with which school officials view him, as a beginning teacher.

A great responsibility rests on you to make your contribution to the student's cumulative record as meaningful and accurate as possible. Suggestions on the nature of data which should be collected, the kind of analysis which is productive, and ways of reporting findings that are meaningful are made at many points in this book. (See Chapter 15, pp. 450–470.) Suffice it at this point to say that every comment contributed to a student's record must

be arrived at through careful analysis of accurate and complete evidence. Gathering of the evidence and analysis of it should be done cooperatively with the student.

Observation of College Students in a Variety of Situations Contributes to Understanding of Them

Chapter 13 is devoted entirely to a consideration of observation, giving detailed attention to your guidance of students as they observe and suggesting factors to be kept in mind when you are the observer of students. You will, of course, learn a great deal about the students with whom you work as you carefully observe their behavior in various activities. Most often, you will be observing them to discover their professional needs in order that you may provide appropriate experiences for them.

Frequently you will find it helpful to observe each student with the purpose of learning to know him better as a person. It is true that one cannot divide a human being into that part which is teacher and that which is person. However, it is also true that when we are primarily concerned with professional abilities, we sometimes are blind to the person. Your observation of student teachers and other college students should have the same characteristics as your observation of pupils in your effort to understand them and gather data showing the progress they are making. This means that you will try to see your students in a variety of situations and engaged in a range of activities.

- You will want to pay close attention to a student during periods in the classroom when he is not engaged in formal activities—before school, during rest periods, after school. When students are relaxed and having informal contacts with pupils, they sometimes reveal their real selves, their true feelings toward learners and teaching, their anxieties.
- You should take every opportunity provided for being with college students on the campus. Here you frequently gather the kind of information that would seldom be expressed in your classroom. Visit their college classes when possible, participate in some out-of-class activities—student organizations of all kinds. Try to get a picture of the life the student leads —personal and social, as well as intellectual.

- You will want to arrange for some special occasions for you and the students to be together informally. This may mean inviting the one or more working with you at any given time into your home for a meeting of some sort or for a purely social time.

If you are to reap greatest benefit from your observations of students, you will need to do careful recording. Like all recording of behavior, your records in this instance should be anecdotal in nature and as objective as possible. No records of behavior, however, are clearly and completely objective. Each human being sees in every situation those things which he is ready to see and which his background of values, experience, and ability permit him to perceive. Nevertheless, each of us can, recognizing that all recording has a degree of subjectivity, develop certain skills which help in gathering facts rather than relying on personal opinion about behavior. Chief among the skills in this category is that of recording what is said and done, avoiding your opinion of statements and action. Once you have a record which includes only what actually happened, then you are free to sit down with your student or by yourself, analyze your record, and begin to make some tentative judgments. (The purpose of arriving at judgment, of course, is that you may plan with the student for future action.)

Conferences with College Students Contribute to Knowing Them

Did you ever notice that when you are having conversations with friends you have had for years and whom you think you know quite well you often discover new things about them? Individual personalities are so complex by the time a person approaches adulthood that association over a period of years often produces limited understanding of even one's closest friends. Limits of understanding can be extended by certain kinds of conversations. For example, your conversations with your college students will yield more mutual understanding when . . .

- Your association is based on respect for one another.
- The atmosphere is relaxed and free from tension and fear.

- The conversations are focused on items of concern to both parties.
- The nature of the conversation is developmental—that is, when the conversants are building ideas, exploring possibilities, arriving at agreements.

Conversations, whether formal conferences or informal chats, provide better communication and result in more understanding when they have these qualities.

In your work with college students, you will want to provide time for just "talking." It is a deterring factor in human relationships when one or both of you feels that the other does not have time to talk. In addition to the more formal discussions you have with students about their professional activities, plan to have informal times together when you may talk about your interests, your hobbies, or your concerns, both personal and professional.

For more specific help on making your conferences with students productive, you are referred to Chapter 14, where conferences are discussed in detail.

Special Types of Written Work May Be Used to Gather Data about College Students

In some teacher education programs students are asked to write autobiographies at one point or another in their college careers. Often this request is made at the time of freshman orientation. Sometimes cooperating teachers make this request of student teachers early in their work. Here are a few excerpts from student teachers' autobiographies given to a cooperating teacher at his request:

> There were six children in our family and I was the youngest. Contrary to the usual belief that the youngest child in a family has it the best or is favored, I was the neglected one. My older brothers and sisters were always getting things because they wanted more than I did.

Another student wrote:

> My father was extremely strict with us. I guess he thought children should be seen and not heard. Sometimes when I see the behavior of my brother's two youngsters now, I think my father was right.

And another:

> Neither my father nor my mother wanted me to be a teacher. They both said teachers become old maids and I'd be better off if I went to secretarial school.

You can easily see that such material from autobiographies may be helpful in gaining understanding of a college student. As a layman in the field of understanding personality, it is important for you to be cautious in the interpretation of facts and feelings revealed in students' writing. But, used with good judgment, a student's own statement of his personal background may well supply you with information that helps in understanding his behavior.

In addition to autobiographies, students are sometimes asked to respond to more specific questions. For example, the general question, "Why did you choose teaching as a profession?" frequently produces useful information on attitudes and current thinking about teaching and teachers. Or, "Describe the best teacher you ever had" often reveals a student's concept of good teaching.

There are available at the present time many tested instruments for gathering data on important aspects of behavior. Representative of these are: (1) Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, (2) Kuder Preference Scale, (3) dominance-submission tests, (4) tests of social values, (5) educational beliefs tests. If the students with whom you work have not taken such tests, you may want to use one or more, depending upon the nature of the information you desire. It may be that if you were to discuss this possibility with the college staff members who work closely with you, they would join in administering selected tests to all the students, making the results on your students available to you.

One of the most important kinds of written work with which you will be concerned is what the student does in relation to his responsibilities in your classroom. For instance, when a small group of students observe in your room and record their observations, their records become significant in a number of ways. Not the least of these is for the information they reveal on the values of the students, what they believe to be important, their likes and dislikes. Your use of this kind of professional record is discussed in Chapter 13, to which you may turn for details.

Use of Personal Data Forms May Provide Needed Information about College Students

One of the easiest ways of gathering certain kinds of useful information about students who come to your room is to ask them to respond to items on a personal data form. Such a form may be prepared by you and include requests for information you feel to be important. Or, it may be prepared cooperatively by a group of college and cooperating-center personnel and include agreed-upon questions. In most cases, the request will be more complete and in better form when prepared cooperatively. However, if the college with which you are affiliated has not prepared such a form, you may wish to develop your own or you may wish to suggest that a group of college and school staff members get together and produce one. An example of one such form is found in Chapter 6.

The utilization of information gathered on personal data forms is important. Often students become discouraged with requests to fill in such forms because their previous experience has taught them that it doesn't matter anyway—"no one pays any attention to what you say." It is unfortunate when students have experiences from which such attitudes evolve. Consequently, if you ask students to respond to a personal data form, make sure that you actually use this data in your later guidance of them. For future teachers it is of particular importance that intelligent use be made of data gathered about them, for as this is done prospective teachers are having a vital experience in learning the importance of knowing pupils and of using information about them as a basis for providing better educational opportunity.

Participation in Planning at the College Contributes to Knowing Students

Of all the activities in which you may engage for the purpose of learning to know college students, few pay bigger dividends than careful and thoughtful participation in the college program. As one of the most important persons in the education of teachers, you should have an opportunity (and you certainly should

grasp every one that comes your way and even create some) to work alongside other college staff members in planning, operating, and evaluating the entire teacher education program. In doing this, you have a chance to study, with your colleagues, the real bases of program planning, and certainly one significant basis is knowledge of the learners. Such study provides you with essential information on all college students and on future teachers particularly.

There are some activities carried on by colleges which yield rather unusual opportunities to know students. Often these are assigned to one or two special staff members and, as a result, only those people reap the benefits. Reference here is to recruitment programs, placement and follow-up activities, personal and professional advising, out-of-class organization sponsorship, residence hall programs, and extension and research services. College administrators would do well to consider the benefits which are derived by staff members who engage in these activities and to make such administrative arrangements as will facilitate the spreading of these responsibilities among the whole college staff group.

When a recruitment program includes visiting high schools and homes of future college students, obviously the college staff member making these visits learns a great deal about students in general, and some things about particular students. To participate in carrying out the guidance program by serving as a freshman counselor gives the faculty member insights into problems, interests, needs, and abilities which he could not otherwise obtain easily. Serving as a sponsor of a student organization provides rich opportunity to see students under different circumstances and therefore to learn much about them. Whatever you can do to bring yourself into active contact with the total college life of students will contribute to your understanding of the students with whom you work.

Specific Knowledge of Students Can Be Related to General Characteristics of College Youth

Of what significance is it to be informed about the common expectancies and problems of your college students? The general

significance has already been referred to—that such information is an important part of the bases for guiding their learning activities and that it contributes to your sympathetic understanding of them. But, what of the significance in more specific terms?

Back of behavior exhibited by different student teachers may lie causes that you will more readily recognize because you are aware of problems common to college students. For example:

When:	It may be that the student is sincerely striving to:
Frank is unprepared with his lesson plan and says he didn't have time to do it.	Establish himself with a particular member of the opposite sex and this task is momentarily occupying most of his time.
Joyce insists upon some explanation of why you joined the teachers' union.	Gather evidence as a basis for rejecting or accepting a basic concept.
	Develop a principle to guide her own behavior.
Marlene appears to question almost everything you suggest.	Assume adult status with you as an adult.
	Establish her own self-reliance and respect.
	Identify you with other adults from whose control she is trying to escape.
Brooks appears to turn silent and unresponsive to your criticism.	Develop skill in being objective in interpreting the situation.
	Build constructive ways of expressing his emotions.
Joe reveals in many ways that he is afraid of you.	Deal with the problem of fear of failure in his work with you.

What a student is able to learn from any situation depends largely upon what he brings to it and what elements present in the environment are congruent to (or fit) his particular needs, interests, and abilities. As was noted early in this chapter, your main responsibility in teaching is to arrange various conditions in the environment so that appropriate learning opportunities are available for each student. To do this, it is essential that you develop the most complete possible understanding of each learner

with whom you work. While information currently available on general characteristics of college students is helpful, without specific knowledge of individual students you cannot provide the best learning opportunities for each.

SELECTED PRINCIPLES DERIVED FROM CONSIDERATION OF THE LEARNING PROCESS AND OF COLLEGE STUDENTS AS LEARNERS

To summarize the foregoing considerations of learning and college students as learners some guiding principles are suggested. The list is not intended to be a complete set of principles having a bearing on teaching in general. Rather, the items are some generalizations, growing out of the discussion in this chapter, which have particular significance for your work as a teacher educator.

- Each individual brings to every situation all that he is as a result of his past experiences; the total of his knowledge, feelings, attitudes, and skills determines what he can and will see and react to in the learning environment.
- Not only does the whole learner react to the situation but he reacts to selected factors within the total setting—the teacher, the materials, other learners, emotional climate, expressed and implied expectancies and content.
- Experience is unique for each individual. No two persons have identical experiences because no two bring identical selves to the learning environment; no two assess factors in the environment in the same way. Learning is a personal, individual matter.
- The desired outcome of learning is change in behavior, which is facilitated when:

  The learning environment includes a range of opportunities appropriate to the particular needs, interests, and abilities of individuals.

  The conditions in the environment reduce fear and undesirable tension on the part of the learner.

  The learner's selectivity in experience is respected.

  The learner receives real guidance in increasing his range of selectivity.

- All human beings have common basic needs which must be respected by those who guide learning.
- In the process of maturing, all people go through stages in dealing with characteristic developmental tasks which can be defined in general. To understand a learner of any age, a teacher must take into account the expected normal problems and concerns of that stage in relation to the individual's status.
- Individual rate and nature of development is affected by both biological and sociological factors, and every individual has unique qualities in his development. These qualities bear so directly one upon the other that one part of the total person cannot be adequately considered without reference to all parts.
- The individual learns more than one thing at a time; learning is multiple. While gaining information, the learner is also building attitudes and acquiring patterns of behavior.

These principles are referred to throughout the remainder of this book and serve as the basis for many of the recommendations relating to your work with future teachers.

5

YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE COLLEGE

To have so many classroom teachers, building principals, school superintendents, and boards of education as working partners in the preparation of future teachers is quite a new experience for colleges and universities. Relationships between college personnel and members of school staffs are in their infancy. Much remains to be done to produce the kinds of relationships needed for best results in such an important cooperative enterprise as preparing young people for the teaching profession and inducting them into it.

The purpose of this chapter is to explore particular problems and concerns you, as a cooperating teacher, may have in connection with your work with the college. It is not possible to deal with all the questions you may have in this regard, partly for the reason that they are too numerous, but also because many of your concerns are probably unique to your situation.

Areas of concern selected for discussion here are those found to be most in need of attention by both college and cooperating school personnel. While it is not possible to avoid drawing implications for college staff members and administrators, the focus of the analysis and suggestions is on your work as a cooperating teacher. What are your concerns about your relations with the college with which you are affiliated?

If you are like most classroom teachers who participate in

teacher education programs, your concerns may be expressed in questions similar to these: Why did they ask me to take a student teacher? Why was our school selected as a cooperating school? Just what does the college expect me to do as a cooperating teacher? What help can I depend upon from the college? How will I know what to expect of students who come to my classroom? To whom can I go for help in understanding students' backgrounds and for guidance in doing a good job with them? The following sections of this chapter, presenting general information on such questions, may help you to see your role more clearly and to examine more constructively your relations with the college.

SELECTION OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS TO COOPERATE IN THE STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

As a cooperating teacher you probably are aware of some of the factors taken into account when you and your school were selected to be partners in the preparation of teachers. Perhaps you were actively involved in the preliminary discussions as to the desirability of cooperating with the college in the student teaching program. If so, you know some of the questions the college representatives asked about you, your school, and the community. If you are serving as a cooperating teacher in a situation where unfortunately you were not so involved, you may wish to find out how it happened that you were selected to do this important job. Colleges and universities do have policies on the selection of cooperating schools and teachers. A brief review of criteria which usually form a part of policies in determining the selection of schools may answer some of your questions on how and why your school is participating in a student teaching program.[1]

Criteria for the Selection of Schools as Laboratories for Student Teaching Are Essential

When representatives of a college begin their search for schools to serve as laboratories in the teacher education program, they

[1] Application of the criteria when the focus is on assignment of the student teacher to a laboratory situation is discussed in Chapter 6.

must take into account several important factors. Some of these relate to the school and its community; others to the educational program in the school; and still others to the school staff. In addition, there are practical considerations, such as budget of time and money, which play an important part in the selection of schools.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCHOOL AND ITS COMMUNITY MUST BE CONSIDERED. What kind of school makes the best laboratory for student teaching? In answering this question, most teacher educators would agree that many different kinds of schools may serve the student teaching program equally well. However, while variation in certain aspects may not decrease the quality of student teaching experiences provided, all schools participating in the teacher education program should have some characteristics in common. Such essential qualifications are suggested by these questions . . .

- Does the school have a representative pupil population? That is, do the boys and girls in the school represent the range in ability, interests, and needs which is found in many schools?
- Are the physical facilities and equipment of the school adequate but not so superior as to be quite different from those to be expected in other schools?
- Is the school of reasonable size—not so large as to be confusing to the student and not so small as to be limited in the kinds of opportunities which may be made available to the student?

Regarding the school community, these questions may be asked . . .

- Is the community from which the school draws its population representative? For example: Does it include different socioeconomic levels? Does it include a relatively stable population?
- Is the community interested in its school? Do parents and other community adults participate actively in the school program? Does the community, as expressed by the behavior of its citizens, assume a positive approach and take constructive action in relation to its school?

- Is the community willing to have its school participate in the teacher education program? Do parents and other adults recognize the importance of their school's sharing in the preparation of teachers?

These suggested criteria regarding the school and its community should not be interpreted to mean that campus laboratory schools may not serve adequately as laboratories for student teaching. Indeed, many such schools would meet these criteria. Moreover, it must be remembered that the total teacher education program includes a wide range of professional laboratory experiences, some of which can be carried on better in campus schools than in any other laboratory.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROG. AM IN THE SCHOOL SHOULD BE OF HIGH QUALITY. Some of the criteria which may be applied in determining the quality of the educational program in the school are suggested in these questions . . .

- Does the program represent a deliberate attempt to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of the school population?

  Is there real provision for individual differences?

  Are the experiences learners are having in the school related to their problems of living? Does the content being dealt with have meaning to them?
- Is the program responsive to changes which are suggested by new knowledge?
- Are the procedures employed in developing the program based upon sound principles of curriculum development?

Quality of program is difficult to appraise without careful attention to the people who carry out the program. Hence, college representatives attempting to select schools for student teaching are likely to take a close look at the staff, their characteristics, and the way they work, as another basis for making decisions on whether a school should be invited to participate in the program of teacher education.

SCHOOL STAFF MEMBERS SHOULD HAVE CERTAIN ATTITUDES AND WAYS OF WORKING AS INDIVIDUALS AND AS A GROUP. The professional staff of a school and their ways of working are crucial fac-

tors in the selection of student teaching laboratories. College representatives responsible for the selection of schools for student teaching look for the following in staff members and their ways of working . . .

- Do members of the staff take a professional attitude toward their work? Do they like teaching and children and youth? Do they see teaching as a significant contribution to the welfare of society? Are they proud to be teachers?
- Does the staff of the school work as an integrated, cooperative group in dealing with problems in the school? Do they share appropriately in making decisions on administrative policies, on the educational program, and on total school functions?
- Is the staff continuously engaged in study and improvement of the educational program? Do they take an experimental attitude toward testing their ideas in practice? Do they systematically gather evidence as a basis for program improvements?
- Do members of the staff recognize the importance of their contribution to the preparation of future teachers? Do they see participation in the teacher education program as an opportunity and a responsibility?
- As individuals, do staff members represent wholesome, well-adjusted people and citizens? Do they have breadth of interests? Are they active participants in community life? Are they outgoing and happy as people?

PRACTICALITIES OF BUDGET, PERSONNEL, AND TIME MUST BE CONSIDERED. The farther removed from a college campus a cooperating school is, the greater the amount of staff time consumed in traveling back and forth and the greater the expense of travel. Even in situations where a college staff member goes to the cooperating school community and lives for a period of time while working with student teachers, the expense is greater than when the same supervisor can live at home and carry on his activities both in the college and in the cooperating school. Furthermore, since it is highly desirable that a representative from the college be able to visit the cooperating school frequently without undue pressure of time and money, this question should be asked . . .

- Is the school close enough to the college campus to make travel between the school and college easily possible for stu-

dents, their cooperating teachers, and the college supervisor working with them?

A teacher-preparing institution cannot afford to provide staff personnel in the quantity needed to guide student teachers in their everyday work in schools. Even if it could, it would be an unwise procedure, for the person best fitted to provide intimate guidance of the student is the classroom teacher who knows the school situation, the particular pupils in his classroom and their program, and who can observe the student's steady growth from day to day. For both practical and professional reasons, then, the college depends upon cooperating teachers for close guidance of college students. Nevertheless, so that the experiences of the student in his college program and in his work in a cooperating school may move forward congruously, college supervisors and coordinators of student teaching should share in the supervision of student teachers as often as possible within the limitations of time and budget.

Perhaps it would be well to mention another reason why colleges generally try to select schools located within reasonable distance of the campus. Usually, living in residence halls on a campus is made available to college students at cost and is, therefore, less expensive than board and room in the school community. Most students preparing to be teachers are not in a position to pay additional costs, and it is to their advantage budgetwise to live in a college dormitory during their student teaching. This is a practical problem. Some colleges, in an effort to provide the added advantages of close association and participation in the school community, are exploring ways of meeting budget problems to make it possible for the student teachers to live off-campus.

The criterion of accessibility should not be the primary factor in the selection of cooperating schools. If schools which meet the other criteria suggested earlier in this section can be found in the geographical area of the college, they should be preferred above those far removed from the campus. However, if such schools can be found only at a distance from the college, then it would seem wise to select them and somehow meet the practical problems of budget and time.

These, then, are some of the criteria used by colleges in select-

ing schools to cooperate in their student teaching program. The fact is, however, that the particular professional people who work with student teachers make an indelible impression upon them. The feelings and insights resulting from contact with people are probably far more vital than those from material things. This is one reason why you, as a cooperating teacher, are a key person in the teacher education program.

Selection of Classroom Teachers as Cooperating Teachers Should Be Based on Criteria

After a school has been selected, there remains the task of selecting teachers within the school to work with college students as future teachers. Not all teachers in a single school are equally equipped nor are they likely to have the same degree of interest in the teacher education program. Sometimes excellent classroom teachers for quite justifiable reasons prefer not to work with student teachers. Other outstanding teachers of children or youth may feel inadequate, and may actually be inadequate, to work with another adult in their classrooms. How particular classroom teachers are selected to serve as cooperating teachers is of great importance both to those teachers and to the college students with whom they work.

Certainly the process of selection should be a cooperative one in which teachers have a part. Working with future teachers is of such importance that the person who is going to carry major responsibility for it should not have the job forced upon him either by a college representative or by a school administrator. As a classroom teacher, your feelings should carry much weight in determining whether you serve as a cooperating teacher at any particular time. Only when this is the case is it likely that you will undertake work with a student teacher in a positive spirit. Only when you enter willingly and happily into an agreement to be a cooperating teacher are you likely to create an atmosphere for students which makes them feel wanted and welcome. Of course, such a feeling on their part is basic to their success as student teachers.

The earlier discussion of staff attitudes and ways of working as

criteria for the selection of cooperating schools suggests certain qualifications which individual teachers should possess if they are to work effectively as cooperating teachers. Although every member of a school faculty is not expected to have these qualities to the same degree, the teacher who is selected to work with student teachers should be a person who . . .

- Has a positive professional attitude and a real liking and respect for teaching.
- Is a responsible and willing participant in the affairs of the school.
- Is basically a learner, striving always to improve his ability to carry out his tasks.
- Perceives the opportunity to work with future teachers as a professional responsibility, one which he is glad to have a chance to assume.
- Is attractive because of his scope of interests, the wholesome way in which he meets his problems, his participation in community activities—his zest for living and working.

A review of the first chapter of this book, where "cooperating teachers as key figures in teacher education" is discussed, suggests two additional criteria: The classroom teacher selected to serve in this capacity should be a person who . . .

- Is able to deal with basic principles of learning and teaching and to verbalize these in working with a novice.
- Can work effectively with another adult in the classroom; is able to share rewards and joys as well as problems with another person; is able to teach through another person.

Thinking about criteria used in the selection of schools and teachers to join forces with colleges in the preparation of future teachers should be very satisfying to you. Even though it may seem to you that you are expected to be a paragon of virtue as a professional person, still the fact that you have been selected is quite complimentary. But there are more important reasons why you should be concerned with the bases for selection of cooperating schools and teachers. For example, as a person involved in teacher education, you should share in the creating and implementing of policies which affect your work. Bases used in the

selection of laboratories make explicit at least some of the purposes of student teaching and other professional laboratory experiences and how college personnel envision that those purposes may be met. You will be able to do a better job when you are informed about such bases.

If you have not had a chance to consider these and other criteria which may be applied in your particular situation, why not discuss this with your principal and the representative from the college who visits your student teacher from time to time? Your interest in the problem will be appreciated.

AGREEMENTS BETWEEN COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS WHICH FACILITATE A STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

To be uncertain of what is expected of you or of what you may expect of other people in a working situation is a deterrent to doing your best with the task at hand. Such uncertainty may cause you to hesitate to take steps which your judgment tells you should be taken, for fear of going too far and usurping too much responsibility. It may contribute to feelings of insecurity, which surely do not help in freeing a person to make decisions and act on them. In student teaching programs, it often happens that the persons playing major roles have not had their parts clearly defined. Perhaps this is the case with you, with your student teacher, and even with the college supervisor with whom you work. If it is, then all three of you probably would like to have clarified what is expected of you and what you may expect of one another. Such clarification is essential to easing the way toward a good experience for all.

In this connection there are two general expectancies which you are fully justified in having and which should be met. First, you may expect that the college will assume responsibility for clarifying the roles to be played by those related to the student teaching program. Second, you may rightly assume that you will be a party to the deliberations and the conclusions reached as to what these roles are to be. A closer look at some of the responsibilities that should be clearly defined may suggest points which you will want to explore with your student or with the college representatives.

Functions to Be Served by Personnel Related to the Student Teaching Program Should Be Clearly Defined

Student teaching, as the most intensive professional laboratory experience in the teacher education program, is intended to provide prospective teachers the opportunity (1) to discover their abilities and needs, (2) to clarify and test theoretical concepts, and (3) to increase their understanding and skill in a practical situation. It is for the student a learning experience. For this reason the chief function of all those who work with the student teacher is to guide him in his learning through various activities. The particular functions served by each person in the student teaching program should be viewed in this context, the ultimate goal being improved guidance for each student teacher.

Actually many different individuals, both in the college and in the school system, contribute substantially to the guidance of the student. In a sense, the board of education in your school system may, by its action on agreements with the college, either limit or extend freedom for those who guide students. Similarly, a college president may influence what can be done in the student teaching program in such a way as to contribute to the quality of guidance available to the student or weaken it. The school principal, too, has much to do with the controls that have a bearing on the student teaching program. But there are four persons who have a somewhat more direct influence on the quality of experience in student teaching. You are one of these persons, and *in every way the most influential.* Obviously, the student himself is an important person in determining what the experience will mean to him. The other two persons having direct influence are the college supervisor who works with your student teacher along with student teachers in other classrooms and the coordinator or director of student teaching who works with the entire student teaching program of the college.

WHAT PARTICULAR FUNCTIONS SHOULD THE COORDINATOR OR DIRECTOR OF STUDENT TEACHING SERVE? Most colleges have an administrative position with a title of director or coordinator of student teaching. (Some titles include student teaching and other

professional laboratory experiences.) The function of this individual is suggested by the title. His job is to coordinate or to direct (in the best sense of the word) the entire student teaching program, usually for both elementary and secondary school teachers-to-be. This over-all function may be broken into parts to get a clearer picture of just what such a coordinator might do . . .

- To take care of administrative aspects of the program, such as:

  Selecting cooperating centers.

  Completing contractual agreements (oral or written) between college and centers.

  Selecting college staff for the student teaching program.

  Administering policies on budget and staff load.

  Representing the student teaching program on administrative councils of the college and in negotiations with the board of education or superintendent of a school system.

  Completing steps involved in assignment of student teachers.
- To guide the college supervisory staff in study and evaluation of their work and in dealing with problems common to the supervision of student teaching.
- To facilitate continuous study and improvement of the student teaching program and other professional laboratory experiences by all those related to it.
- To provide for the continuous inservice education of persons, both at the college and in cooperating schools, working in the student teaching program.
- To serve as the liaison person between the student teaching program and other aspects of the total curriculum of teacher education.

In colleges where the number of student teachers is small, you are likely to have close contact with the coordinator. Where the number of student teachers is so large as to require several college supervisors to work with small groups of student teachers, the chances are that your contacts with the coordinator will be limited to general meetings, seminars for cooperating teachers, or an occasional visit.

WHAT ARE THE PARTICULAR FUNCTIONS OF THE COLLEGE SUPERVISOR OF STUDENT TEACHERS IMPORTANT TO YOUR WORK WITH STUDENTS? The college supervisor who comes to your room and plans with you for the work of the student teacher probably provides your closest contact with the college program. While in some organizational patterns such a supervisor will be carrying a teaching load which is divided between supervising student teachers and teaching college classes, in other patterns of organization he will be devoting full time to the supervision of student teaching. In the program for prospective elementary school teachers, supervisors of student teaching are usually general supervisors, working with student teachers in all areas of the school curriculum. If you are in a secondary school, the college supervisor may be a subject specialist, supervising students only in his major field, or he may be a general supervisor, working with students in any area of the high school curriculum. Regardless of the particular organizational pattern in the staffing of the student teaching program at the college, supervisors usually assume responsibility for such functions as . . .

- Working with the coordinator of student teaching in completing assignments of student teachers, assuming special responsibility for:

  Careful study of the student's record with him and his major adviser at the college.

  Identification of appropriate laboratory situations for each student.

  Cooperative study with potential cooperating teachers of the student's record, the classroom situation, and the desirability of matching the student, the situation, and the cooperating teacher.

  Clarification with the building principal of questions and suggestions regarding the possible placement of student teachers in the building.
- Participating with other college supervisors in study and improvement of the student teaching program, including his own professional inservice growth.
- Providing general guidance of a group of student teachers (from ten to thirty, depending upon other responsibilities he may carry) through:

Group seminars to discuss common problems of the students with whom he is working.

Supply of materials and resources to enhance the students' work in the classroom.

- Providing specific guidance to each student teacher through:

  Careful study of his record with him and identification of his needs as a basis for planning for his student teaching activities.

  Observation of his work in the classroom, followed by cooperative analysis of what was observed and planning for next steps on the basis of the analysis. (This should be done with the student, the cooperating teacher, and the college supervisor in conference and is the core of evaluation of student teacher growth.)

  Individual conferences with the student.

  Individual conferences with the cooperating teacher.

- Providing through group conferences general help to the group of cooperating teachers working with his students.
- Providing specific help to a cooperating teacher through individual conferences, supply of materials and resources, and background information on the student.
- Serving as the liaison person between the cooperating teacher and the college, interpreting the college program to the cooperating teacher and communicating general problems and feelings of the cooperating teacher to the college.
- Helping, if requested, in any way that he can with work in the school or in the cooperating teacher's classroom.

Perhaps these suggestions as to functions which may be served by the college supervisor will assist you in understanding the role that person is attempting to play as he has contact with you from time to time. If you are at all uncertain about what the particular functions of the supervisor are in your situation, you should discuss this point with him the next time you have a chance. Your raising the question may even initiate clarification of functions which are now rather vaguely described.

An unfortunate confusion often resides at the point of differentiation between your particular responsibilities and those of the college supervisor. It is necessary to clarify the roles to be played

by each, not so much that your functions and those of college supervisor can or should be discrete, but rather that you may know what to expect of yourself and the college supervisor.

WHAT SHOULD YOU EXPECT OF YOURSELF AS A COOPERATING TEACHER? As was indicated earlier, you are the most influential person working with the student teacher. Assuming such a major responsibility as is implied by that statement increases the importance of knowing exactly what is expected of you as you work with future teachers. The chapters which follow in this book deal specifically with the many functions you perform as a cooperating teacher and suggest the kinds of expectancies both the student teachers and the college personnel may have in relation to your guidance of college students preparing to teach. Here your general obligations are identified so that you may view your responsibilities in relation to those of other persons working in the total student teaching program. As a cooperating teacher, you undertake . . .

- To provide the student with intimate guidance in all of his activities in the classroom and school from day to day.
- To share with the college supervisor your concerns about your work with the student and to work cooperatively with him in dealing with problems—your own and the student's.
- To be especially alert to study and improvement of your own teaching and to share what you learn with your student teacher.
- To take advantage of opportunities to learn more about the college program in general and student teaching as a part of it; to increase your understanding and skill in working as a teacher educator; and to build adequate understanding of the students with whom you work.
- To contribute to the improvement of the college program by making your suggestions and questions known in situations where you and/or others are working on program.
- To share the whole range of your professional activities with the student.

Your responsibilities and those of your co-workers from the college are contingent upon and intimately related to the obliga-

tions and responsibilities of the fourth person, the student teacher himself.

WHAT KINDS OF EXPECTATIONS MAY YOU HAVE REGARDING THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF YOUR STUDENT TEACHER? Frequently cooperating teachers are not quite sure what they may expect of a student teacher. Such comments as these made by one cooperating teacher suggest the uncertainty that often prevails:

"He (student teacher) always says that he must be back at the college at three o'clock, and so I just never have time to sit down and talk with him."

"I thought it would be a good idea for him (student teacher) to go with me to the social studies committee meeting, but I wasn't sure whether or not he would think I was imposing on his time, so I didn't ask him."

"No, I hadn't seen any written plan for this class. I assume that he had one, because we had discussed what he might do, but I don't really know if the college expects him to make written plans or not."

"He tells me that he must prepare and teach a unit of work while he is here doing his student teaching, but I don't know whether I am to help him with it or if the college would prefer that he do it alone."

"I know that he keeps a diary of what goes on in the classroom, but he tells me it is for the college supervisor. I really don't think it is quite fair not to share his diary with me, but he thinks he is not supposed to let me see it."

"This student is really ready and eager to teach a class but the college says that he should observe for two weeks before assuming any responsibility on his own. I'd like to know just how strictly such a policy should be enforced."

Being unsure of what you may expect is not conducive to your providing the best guidance for the student teacher. For this reason, responsibilities of students must be clarified in the same way that the functions of others in the situation should be. If you have feelings like those implied in the comments of the teacher just quoted, you should take the initiative in asking the college supervisor what you may expect of the student and in checking with the student on his perceptions of his obligations in student teaching. Where you discover differences in expectations of the supervisor, the student, and yourself, it is good practice to raise a question on the point of difference in a three-way conference.

Often your initiative in seeking information from the college representative can be the trigger to cooperative consideration leading to clarification for all parties concerned.

Because the allocation of time and scheduling of student teaching activities differs so widely from one institution to another and because general regulations covering the work of student teachers vary greatly, it is not possible here to describe in detail the obligations a student teacher may be expected to meet. Rather, an effort is made to identify areas in which responsibilities should be made quite clear.

- Amount of time the student is expected to devote to his student teaching:

  If it is a full-time student teaching program, what does the college mean by full-time—before and after school as well as all the hours included in the teaching day?

  If it is a part-time student teaching program, exactly how much time is allocated in the student's total program for student teaching; what is his schedule of college classes and what are his other legitimate obligations?

  In either case, how much time should be expected for out-of-class preparation?

- Scope of activities the student may be expected to engage in during his student teaching:

  Does the college program of student teaching assume that the student will try to have experience in the complete range of a teacher's activities?

  What proportion of the student's work should be observing as compared with participating or assuming responsibility in the classroom?

  Should some teacher activities be emphasized more than others?

- Requirements (assignments) made in college seminars or by college supervisors during student teaching:

  What particular assignments are made and what is the purpose of each—studies of learners, professional diaries, self-appraisals, readings, identification of problems met in student teaching, to mention only a few common assignments?

What should be your role in working with the student on such assignments and in the final product the student prepares?

- Obligations relating to planning for teaching, guiding, and evaluating the learning of pupils:

  What kinds of written plans are to be made?

  Who is responsible for checking the student's plans with him and when should this be done?

  What kinds of records of his student teaching activities is the student supposed to keep and who is responsible for checking these records with him?

  To what extent should the student be expected to set purposes, gather and interpret data, and evaluate the results of his teaching?

- Responsibilities in connection with evaluation of the student's growth:

  Should the student be responsible for sharing with you the basis for evaluation of his work as a student teacher?

  Should you expect the student to seek your guidance in appraising his growth, identifying his needs, and planning ways of improving his teaching competence?

  What should be the student's responsibility for the final reporting of his progress?

Lack of clear answers to questions like the foregoing causes all kinds of difficulty in a cooperating teacher's work with student teachers. It is of great importance to you and to others that answers be given to these questions. Such answers should not, however, be arrived at by an individual or small group of college supervisors. In order for such questions to be of the greatest help in raising the quality of guidance in student teaching, they must be considered cooperatively by all concerned. As was indicated on pages 95–98, in connection with clarifying your functions and those of the college supervisor, you can make a real contribution to the improvement of the student teaching program if you take the initiative in seeking answers to your questions regarding what to expect of the student in your classroom.

Clear definitions of the functions of various persons constitute one area of agreement that should be reached cooperatively by

colleges and schools assuming joint responsibility for a student teaching program. Perhaps it is the most important area. What has been said in this section about defining responsibilities of persons working in student teaching assumes certain agreements of a more general nature between the college and the cooperating school. For example, you are probably interested in financial arrangements agreed upon when student teachers are placed in a school. You no doubt have wondered sometimes just what your school or you personally may derive from affiliation with a college in their student teaching program. If you do have such queries, you may find help in a consideration of some of the over-all administrative arrangements which should be agreed upon by the college and cooperating schools. Two such arrangements are discussed here: (1) financial agreements and (2) services rendered.

Financial Arrangements Should Facilitate a Good Student Teaching Program

It may interest you to know that the program of student teaching and other laboratory experiences is for the college the most expensive part of the preparation of teachers. This is true in colleges which have their own campus laboratory schools as well as in those which use cooperating schools exclusively. As with any business or any individual, a college is desirous that funds invested produce dividends worthy of the investment. Few teacher education administrators would seriously question the value of a substantial financial outlay for what they recognize as an exceedingly important aspect of the total program. On the other hand, these administrators would like to see the money spent reap the best possible benefits for the future teachers in their colleges.

Three distinct patterns of financial arrangements are found currently in use. The first of these is basically an arrangement whereby the college pays to each classroom teacher who serves as a cooperating teacher a stipend for work with each student each semester. The amount paid under these conditions varies all the way from a token of ten dollars per student per semester to three hundred dollars per year regardless of the number of students placed with the teacher during the year. In a few cases, the college also pays the building principal (or other local supervisor)

a stipend for his services in general supervision of the student teachers in his school.

In the second arrangement the college pays into general funds of the school system an agreed-upon amount for the privilege of using the schools for student teaching purposes. In some instances, such an arrangement is accompanied by stipulations on how the school officials may use the money; in other cases, no limitations are set. Of course, in all cases, the expectancy of the college is that the school officials will employ the money paid by the college toward the improvement of the student teaching program. Such an expectancy permits great latitude, for anything which improves the school program may also contribute to better experiences for student teachers.

Some colleges make no financial agreements with their cooperating schools. This is the third type of arrangement. The point of view back of this kind of arrangement is that student teaching, as an important part of inducting the young into the profession, is the obligation of schools as well as of colleges; that since, usually just one year later, student teachers will be joining school faculties as full-fledged teachers, it is to the advantage of school officials to have a share in the preparation of their future staff members; and that having a student teaching program in a school makes a substantial contribution to individual cooperating teachers and to the school as a whole, a contribution which more than pays for services rendered by cooperating personnel.

It is not our purpose here to debate which of these arrangements is likely to produce the best results. Much can be said for and against each of the three general plans suggested, and the worth of any plan will differ for different schools and colleges. To evaluate the financial arrangements operative in, or contemplated for, your working situation, it is important to consider the purpose of such arrangements and to arrive at some general principles on what they ought to include and how they should be determined.

CLARIFICATION IS NEEDED ON PURPOSES WHICH CAN AND SHOULD BE SERVED BY FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS BETWEEN COLLEGES AND COOPERATING SCHOOLS. The position taken here is that the chief purpose of financial agreements between colleges and cooperat-

ing schools is the improvement of the quality of experience provided for student teachers. Such a position implies certain things about what arrangements should be made. Accepting this position makes necessary at the outset some agreement by the parties concerned on just what kinds of things actually do contribute to quality in a student teaching program. On the one hand, almost anything that is done to improve your working conditions—salary increments, sick leave, pleasant surroundings, an attractive teachers' lounge, class size and teaching load appropriate to freedom in developing the curriculum with boys and girls, adequate consultant services, and a host of others—may contribute to the quality of guidance you are able to give a student teacher. Similarly, almost anything that is done to improve educational opportunities for pupils in the school—adequate instructional materials, good physical facilities of all kinds, adequate attention to their individual needs, and so on—may, and very likely does, enhance the learning experience of student teachers. On the other hand, everything that can be done to improve your working conditions and the educational opportunities provided pupils should be done whether or not there is a student teaching program in your school. Therefore, it would seem to be legitimate for colleges to assume that funds they contribute to a school for the purpose of providing effective student teaching experiences for college students would in fact be *specifically* employed for that purpose.

The foregoing implies that funds should be used in such ways as . . .

- To incorporate the guidance of student teachers into the normal load of cooperating teachers,

  By decreasing the number of classes you are responsible for each day in order that you may have time to work with students.

  By providing additional help to relieve you of certain kinds of responsibilities which can as well be carried by others.

- To make it possible for you to focus some of your attention on improving your competence as a cooperating teacher,

  By freeing you to participate in activities at the college when such activities are necessary to your work as a cooperating teacher.

By freeing you to attend conferences, conventions, and other gatherings where people interested in student teaching are dealing with their common problems.

By making available to you special resources (printed materials, films, people) that have a direct bearing on your work with student teachers.

By making available to you, tuition free, courses designed to deal with the work of the cooperating teacher.

- To provide special opportunities for you to improve your competence as a classroom teacher working with student teachers,

  By freeing you on occasion for visiting other classrooms, observing teachers and student teachers at work.

  By providing certain materials for experimentation with teaching as carried on by you and your student teacher.

The above are some of the purposes for which college funds for student teaching should be expended. Particular arrangements for use of this money depend upon needs in a given situation. In every case, however, those making agreements on financial arrangements should be clear about provisions for the use of funds.

PRINCIPLES ON WHICH FINANCIAL AGREEMENTS SHOULD BE BASED ARE IMPLIED IN THE PURPOSES TO BE SERVED BY PAYMENT OF MONEY BY THE COLLEGE TO THE COOPERATING SCHOOL. These principles, in summary, are given here.

- Colleges using cooperating schools should expect to make budgetary allocations to the student teaching program carried on in those schools.
- Purposes for which funds are to be employed should be cooperatively developed by college and school representatives.
- Agreements on use of funds should be kept fluid enough to provide for meeting needs of the program at any given time but strict enough to avoid temptation to use them for purposes not directly related to student teaching.

Having clearly defined functions and sound financial arrangements in the student teaching program is a must if the program is to be effective and if persons working in it are to be satisfied. Your satisfactions in working with the college may be increased

by reviewing some of the over-all arrangements on the nature of services to be rendered by the college and by the cooperating school.

Quality of the Student Teaching Program Should Be the Determining Factor in Services of Schools and Colleges

What general services should a college provide to a school and to cooperating teachers? What services has the college a right to expect from the school and cooperating teachers? So much has already been said in this chapter about the just expectations of various people working in the student teaching program that these questions have at least partially been answered. A more direct look at agreements on services will serve to organize thinking around these two questions, and to summarize many of the points made in this section.

- A college should provide such services as the following to cooperating schools:

  Adequate and competent supervision of college students working in the schools.

  Adequate background information on college students and the college program.

  Help to cooperating teachers on problems of working with student teachers.

  Assistance on general school problems, curriculum development, or improvement of teaching as may be requested by school personnel.

  Facilities of the college campus which may be used to contribute to the school's program with pupils and student teachers, such as the library or the college bookstore.

- Among the services which a cooperating school may be expected to offer are:

  Provision of opportunities for student teachers to share in the range of activities characteristic of a teacher's work.

  Competent guidance of each student teacher.

  Helpful cooperation by teachers and other school personnel with college representatives working with student teachers in the school.

Cooperation with college efforts to improve its program through study and evaluation.

You may not have found in this chapter exact answers to some of your questions on relationships with the college. But the discussion should serve as a background against which to examine your own situation as a cooperating teacher working with a particular college in its student teaching program. As has been suggested at several points, you may well take the initiative in asking your questions and sharing your problems with those who may be able to help you better to understand your responsibilities and those of others with whom you work. It is always best to be informed.

PART II

GUIDING THE STUDENT TEACHER IN THE RANGE OF THE TEACHER'S WORK

6

SHARING IN THE ASSIGNMENT TO THE LABORATORY SITUATION

THE importance of a good beginning in any endeavor is recognized, whether the venture be the first job, the beginning of the married state, the first weeks in college or in the nursery school. Student teaching is a very special undertaking for the prospective teacher and getting off to a good start is essential. This chapter is concerned with one aspect of such a start, namely, assigning the student to a laboratory situation which will meet his needs and to a cooperating teacher whose guidance will assure the greatest possible growth.

FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE STUDENT TEACHING ASSIGNMENT

Should Student A be assigned to your school? Should he do his student teaching with you and your pupils? Should his work with you be his only period of student teaching? These and related questions must be answered in terms of the basic learning principles discussed in the preceding chapter and in terms of meaningful opportunities which can be provided to meet the particular needs and interests of the individual student. Whether student teaching will be a significant learning experience depends upon three related factors: (1) the needs and interests of the student,

(2) the characteristics of the laboratory situation, and (3) the attitudes of the school and its community.

Needs and Abilities of the Student Must Be Considered

Readiness to profit from an experience, as well as the nature of the learning from that experience, is an individual matter. First, before you are asked to consider a teacher-to-be for work as a student teacher, the student, his major adviser, and others who know him well will determine the student's readiness to undertake student teaching. In many colleges student teaching—the period of guided teaching when the student takes increasing responsibility for the work with a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks—is one aspect of the more diversified observation and participation experiences provided throughout the college program. Study of the student's behavior in earlier professional laboratory experiences will give answers to questions such as . . .

- Is the student *ready* to assume, under guidance, an increasing share of the responsibility for the activities of a group of children or youth?

  Does he understand the major aspects of child growth and development?

  Does he know how to become acquainted with and study the needs, interests, and abilities of a given pupil group?

  Is he sensitive to the problems and factors affecting a teaching-learning situation?

  Does he have some understanding of the principles which govern the learning process and what they mean in guiding learning?

  Is his physical and mental health such that he is ready to undertake this responsibility with learners? Does he have the essential energy? Can he meet situations without undue emotional tension? Is he free from health disabilities harmful to children or youth?

- What should be the nature of his student teaching experience if competence in the foregoing areas is to be extended profitably?

With what age or grade group is the student best equipped to work? With what age or grade group does he need to have increased experience?

Of what socio-economic background does he have best understanding? Is there need to become acquainted with pupils of another type of background?

What is his educational point of view? Does he need an opportunity to see the full meaning of that point of view in guiding children or youth? Does he need to test his point of view in a situation based upon a different set of educational principles?

Are there particular aspects of the school curriculum in which the student has special interest, competence, or need for experience?

With what types of total-school and non-school activities should he have an opportunity to work?

With what kind of school administration and curriculum organization should this student work?

What personality factors need especially to be taken into account? In what kind of climate does he work best? In what kind does he need to learn to work?

Are there other factors relating to the kind of position anticipated by the student which should be taken into account—size of school, rural or urban, availability of educational resources and materials?

These questions should be considered, by the student and those at the college responsible for his growth, as a first step in the assignment to student teaching. Decisions made will vary for different students, according to their needs, interests, and abilities. They will be different for the same student, depending upon whether the assignment is a first student teaching experience or whether it is a second or third. For the first experience the answer will frequently be in terms of the student's special interests and his abilities. Assignment to later student teaching or post-student teaching activities may be in terms of questions relating to a needed area of experience. In every case, one important basis for the decision should be careful study of the records from the student's previous laboratory experiences.

Characteristics of the Laboratory Situation Must Be Studied

Knowing the needs, interests, and abilities of the student is only one side of the coin. Equally important is understanding the laboratory situation and matching the needs of the student with the potential opportunities in the cooperating school. Your help will be needed as attention is given to such items as . . .

- Are the normal interests and activities of the pupil-group those which provide the experiences needed by this student?
- Is the projected assignment in the best interests of the pupils? What effect will the student have upon them? Can they with profit work with another adult personality?
- What is the ability of the cooperating teacher to give the particular kind of guidance needed by the student?

  What factors should be considered in relation to the personality of the cooperating teacher and that of the student?

  Does the cooperating teacher understand the problems of inducting this prospective teacher? Is he interested in studying these problems and developing needed competence?

  Is such an appointment advisable in terms of the cooperating teacher's total load—committee responsibilities, pupil load, health factors?
- Does the school as a whole provide the non-class experiences needed by the student? What opportunities are available for contact with the administration? over-all curriculum development? parent activities?

Questions such as these must be explored in the interest of the college student and of you, the pupils, and others in the laboratory situation. A particular laboratory situation may be very valuable for one student and not for another; it may be helpful to learners and cooperating teacher to have one student and not another. It may be sound to assign a student teacher to a cooperating teacher at one time and not at another, depending upon the particular circumstances at the given time.

The Type of School and Its Community Must Also Be Reviewed

Finally, you and representatives of the college responsible for making an assignment to a laboratory situation must also take into account the basic attitudes of the school and its community toward its role in teacher education, and consider these practical factors . . .

- Does the staff and administration of the school conceive of their role as including a contribution to the education of prospective teachers as well as provision of the best possible program for children and youth?
- Does the community accept this dual function for its schools? Are they willing to cooperate in helping to provide desirable experiences for prospective teachers?
- Is provision made (or can it be) for keeping the community informed of the work of the school in this dual function?
- Are cooperative relations with the college developed (or can they be) to permit working together on common problems—sharing of resources, supervision of students?
- Is the laboratory situation reasonably accessible? Are provisions available for contacts which are not hurried or undermined by time pressures and unrealistic travel demands?

When the teacher's role is conceived to include participation in the activities of the total school group and in the community, these factors are quite as important in selecting a laboratory situation as those suggested by the first two sets of questions. The teacher-to-be will increase his understanding of his role in the community and learn how to interpret community attitudes and build understanding of the school if he can have educative contacts with the community in which he does his student teaching.

ASSIGNMENT TO STUDENT TEACHING: A COOPERATIVE UNDERTAKING

It is evident that the questions raised in the foregoing section cannot be answered without careful thought and study; nor can they be answered by any single individual. Assuring a good be-

ginning in student teaching through sound assignment to the laboratory situation is a cooperative undertaking involving the student, his college advisers, the cooperating teacher, and the administration representing the cooperating school. Each has a part to play; each has a special contribution to make to the assignment process.

The Student and His College Advisers Determine Readiness and Needs to Be Met

The initial step in determining the student's readiness for student teaching and his particular needs that should be met through this experience is the responsibility of the college. This step must be taken by those most fully acquainted with the needs and abilities of the student, referred to on page 110 as conditioning the student teaching assignment. Usually this group includes the student's college adviser, his major professor, the student himself, and the director or coordinator of student teaching and other laboratory experiences.

Questions to be raised and factors to be considered require careful study of the student's strengths and limitations revealed in records, in previous professional laboratory experiences, and through conferences. First, student teaching is an opportunity afforded the student when he has reached the stage of growth at which he can profit by intensive work involving increasing responsibility for guiding a group of learners. It is not a right that comes to the student automatically upon the completion of designated courses, a given number of semester hours of work, or a particular grade or scholastic average. The student may have met such requirements and be lacking in qualities essential for working intensively with pupils. He may need other types of laboratory experiences before he is *ready* for student teaching. Second, it is necessary to study carefully the particular competence of the student, in order to determine the kind of situation which can best provide the student teaching experiences he needs.

As institutions develop more effective cumulative records of students, and as they provide more professional laboratory experiences throughout the college years, evidence to be used as a basis for making the assignment to student teaching will be at hand.

When such records are not available, it becomes necessary to gather the essential facts at the time placement for student teaching is to be considered. Even when cumulative records are at hand, it is advisable to summarize pertinent data for conferences in which the readiness of the student and a suitable assignment for him are discussed. Guide sheets such as the following may be useful for such a purpose.

ASSIGNMENT TO STUDENT TEACHING RECORD

A. PERSONAL

1. Name _____ Date _____
2. College Address _____
   _____ Phone _____
3. Permanent Address _____
   _____ Phone _____
4. Date of Birth _____ Place of Birth _____
5. Types of communities in which you have lived:
   Large city: _____ years Village: _____ years
   Small city: _____ years Rural: _____ years
6. Number of brothers and sisters:
   Older brothers _____ Younger brothers _____
   Older sisters _____ Younger sisters _____
7. Are you earning part of your college expenses now?
   Yes _____ No _____ (If "yes" fill out following)

Nature of Work	*Where*	*Hours per Week*

   Do you plan to continue earning part of your expenses during student teaching? Yes _____ No _____
   If "yes," how many work hours per week? _____
8. Do you have other regular responsibilities? (Sunday school, management of home, etc.)

Nature of Responsibility	*Hours per Week*

9. Health and personality factors:
   a. Date of last physical examination _____
   b. General energy and vitality _____
   _____
   _____
   c. General reaction to situations involving stress and tension
   _____
   _____
   _____
   d. Health factors requiring special attention _____
   _____
   _____
10. Adequacy of speech and language control _____
   _____
   _____

B. TYPE OF TEACHING POSITION DESIRED (Indicate 1st and 2nd choices)

	Grade or Age Level	*Type of Curriculum*	*Type of Community*
1.			
2.			

C. EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND AND SCHOLARSHIP

1. Experience with children/youth

Nature of Experience	*Age of Individuals*	*Length of Experience From*	*To*

2. Work relating to the study of children, their growth and development:
   a. Major courses taken:
   b. Special abilities and interests shown (based on 1 and 2a above):

c. Limitations evidenced:

3. Work relating to the development and guidance of learning experiences (curriculum development):
   a. Major courses taken:

   b. Basic learning principles held (based on 1 and 3a above):

   c. Evidence of ability to use educational principles effectively in working with children/youth:

   d. Evidence of functional knowledge—adequate and accurate use of knowledge as well as ability to use appropriate resources to gain needed information:

   e. Areas which need to be developed and given special attention:

4. Work relating to the total school enterprise and its role in the community:
   a. Major courses taken:

   b. Community contacts including trade or business experience:

Nature of Experience	*Where Secured*	*Length of Experience*	
		From	*To*

   c. Special abilities and interests shown:

   d. Areas which need to be given attention in student teaching:

5. Interests, activities, and hobbies which may be of value in student teaching:
   a. Non-class activities in college:

   b. Travel experience:

   c. Ability: (Check one or more)

   ___ Typewrite
   ___ Run mimeograph
   ___ Coach dramatics
   ___ Advise school newspaper
   Other:
   _____
   _____

   ___ Operate recorder
   ___ Operate film projector
   ___ Coach sports: _____
   ___ Play musical instruments
   Specify:
   _____
   _____

   d. Special interests:

6. Additional reactions: Special interests, abilities, or needs which should be kept in mind in deciding upon the assignment to student teaching and the planning of experiences. (Use reverse side of page if desired.)

D. SUGGESTED STUDENT TEACHING ASSIGNMENT

Kind of school: _____ Age or grade level: _____

Cooperating teacher who has special qualifications, such as:

_____

E. ASSIGNMENT AGREED UPON

School: _____ Grade: _____

Cooperating teacher: _____

A record like the foregoing provides a basis for recommending a specific assignment to student teaching. Such a statement might be prepared independently by the student and by his major college adviser and judgments pooled at a joint conference with the coordinator of laboratory experiences. Or, the record might be developed cooperatively by the student and his adviser at a con-

ference in which they study available records and discuss past experiences. They may then share their joint statement in conference with the coordinator. Whatever method best meets the needs of the particular situation, careful reflection on the student's abilities and needs, as evidenced thus far in his activities, is basic to sound student teaching assignment. Such reflection, committed to writing, is the safeguard against more or less mechanical placement which often gives the nod to expedience rather than to high level educational planning. It provides the student an opportunity to clarify his purposes for this important aspect of his professional study. He then enters upon student teaching with some understanding of what he is trying to accomplish, what is expected of him and *why*.

A record of this type is also needed by the coordinator of laboratory experiences, so that he may intelligently relate the student to the laboratory situation. In any but the very smallest college, the coordinator cannot possibly be expected to know the needs of each student who may be ready for student teaching. His major contribution to the cooperative process is to know schools, the essential nature of the curricula and the governing educational point of view, the different cooperating teachers, the communities and attitudes of laymen and administrators toward the teacher-to-be. This in itself is a huge task, and his over-all knowledge must be supplemented by the judgments of those in the laboratory situation. The written statement serves the additional purpose of bringing together data to be shared with the cooperating teacher *tentatively* selected as representing the type of person and situation which can afford the experiences and guidance needed by the particular student.

The Cooperating Teacher Relates Student Needs to Opportunities in the Laboratory Situation

No assignment should be considered completed until you, as the cooperating teacher, and your principal have had an opportunity to study the needs and abilities of the prospective student teacher and to determine whether the desired experiences can be provided in your particular laboratory situation. This involves shar-

ing the essential data of the "Assignment to Student Teaching Record" just discussed. Various procedures may be used in taking this step. In some situations it may be best to submit the record to the principal of the school, with the recommendation that it be forwarded to the teacher whose activities are thought to provide most adequately the needed experiences. Other administrators may wish to study the student's record with several members of the staff and together arrive at a judgment as to the person who at that time can most effectively cooperate with the college in providing student teaching opportunities.

In still other situations the principal, after a study of the record, may wish to suggest to the coordinator of laboratory experiences members of the school staff particularly suited to meet the needs of the student. It would then become the responsibility of the coordinator (or the student's college adviser, if the coordinator so desires) to discuss the record with the teacher selected. If this is a teacher's first experience with students, it may be helpful to have the coordinator go over the record in a conference. Where teachers have worked previously with the students of a particular college, such a conference may be unnecessary. Some school administrators do not wish to share directly in the assignment process. They hold that their contribution can best be made by keeping informed of action taken and by serving as a resource to the teacher and the college, with either calling upon them when and as desired. The important factor is that the tentatively-selected cooperating teacher receive the record for study and share actively in the assignment process.

If, after study of the record, it is thought advisable that you work with the student, provision should be made for you and the student to meet in conference. Such a conference affords the student an opportunity to meet the person with whom he may work and to see something of the school firsthand. It provides both you and the student time to clarify or to explore more fully points of concern and of special interest suggested by data in the record. It is an initial contact which contributes to a "meeting of minds" and tells something more than the written record about personality factors.

Communication is a two-way process and such a conference will take on added meaning if, prior to the conference, the stu-

dent can know something about you, his prospective cooperating teacher, and the laboratory situation. Just as you gain understanding of the student through study of his record, so the student can be helped to develop feelings of security and to prepare intelligently for the conference if he can reflect on a statement about the situation in which he may do his student teaching. Two types of information have been found to be especially useful for this purpose. One is an over-all statement about the school and its community. In some colleges the coordinator of laboratory experiences prepares such a statement about schools in which the college generally places students. In other institutions students currently working at the school prepare a memorandum, thus providing an up-to-date report for the students who will follow them in student teaching. In still other instances, especially in schools which tend to serve as cooperating centers of a college, the staff or a selected group of older pupils prepare a descriptive statement.

The second type of information useful in acquainting the student with the school is material prepared by the particular cooperating teacher. It is helpful if it includes a brief picture of the pupils, comments on some of the things they are doing (with an amusing incident or two), and a thumbnail sketch of the cooperating teacher. (For an illustrative statement by a cooperating teacher, see Chapter 7, p. 134.) The statement need not be long nor as thorough as the student record sent to the cooperating teacher. At this point the student will not remember detailed factual data. The purpose is to build a concept of cooperative interaction, to develop a feeling of being invited to explore the situation, to provide some ideas around which questions may be raised, and to help the student feel the human and understanding qualities of the cooperating teacher. Both types of material may be sent to the student when arrangements are made for the conference between student and cooperating teacher. Or, the general statement may be made available at the time of the conference of the student and his college adviser when a tentative assignment is suggested. In this case the statement of the cooperating teacher would be sent along with the communication regarding the initial conference between the student and the cooperating teacher.

Other values can result from the conference if, as it proceeds, it becomes evident that the tentative assignment is soundly based

and should be confirmed. You have an opportunity to acquaint the student more adequately with the pupil group and the overall organization of the room and school, to share your work plans, and to arrange for additional meetings or study of materials which would facilitate his sharing in the work when he begins his student teaching. This is also an opportunity important for the student by way of building feelings of security, of knowing what will be expected upon his arrival, of being wanted and having a contribution to make, of being assigned to a situation which will give him the help he desires and needs. These are factors that contribute to a good beginning in student teaching. They are discussed more fully in the chapter which follows.

The care with which the college reflects upon the needs and abilities of the student can only be brought to fruition as they are matched with opportunities for experience and the quality of guidance available in the laboratory situation. No one can know the nature of the work and the interests and needs of a group of learners as intimately as can you, the teacher who works with them daily. You have an important role to play in the preparation of new personnel as members of the teaching profession, and the first step is sharing in deciding whether you and the immediate situation in which you are working can give the teacher-to-be the best experience. You may need help in arriving at a sound judgment, but you have a contribution to make which no other person can. Both your school administration and the college have a role to play in working cooperatively with you, especially if you are just beginning work with student teachers, in making increasingly better decisions regarding student assignments. As you share in this process, you gain understanding of the student who is to work with you, develop plans for first steps in working with him, and feel the satisfactions which come from effectively helping the student to explore the excitement of teaching.

The Student Shares in the Assignment Process as an Important Learning Experience

From the foregoing discussion it is clear that the student should have a share in the assignment process, both in the steps initiated

by the college and in those taken by the representatives of the laboratory situation. He is the central figure and is vitally concerned with this crucial aspect of his professional study. Even more important, however, is the significance of such participation as a learning experience for the student. First, filling out the "Assignment to Student Teaching Record" and discussing the types of experience which he needs in student teaching should contribute to his ability to make a sound self-appraisal and to set up worthy purposes to guide further work. Second, it should add strength to his conviction as to the importance of selecting and planning experiences in terms of needs and interests—a principle which probably has been emphasized in the student's previous college work. Third, sharing in selecting the laboratory situation for his student teaching should add to the student's understanding of the factors involved in judging any teaching-learning situation. This should also be of value when the time comes for the student to explore possible first teaching positions, by pointing out the elements to be considered and how they may be noted. Fourth, there are the gains which come as a result of added experience in participating in conference situations with the cooperating teacher and with his advisers. Finally, consideration of the factors which must be safeguarded in the laboratory situation can contribute to increased sensitivity to, and respect for, children and youth as the "heart" of the educational process. These are built as thought is given to such questions as: What effect will another personality have upon the pupils? How do their needs and those of the college student relate to each other? Can the student's needs be met through the activities which are important for the boys and girls? These and related questions, especially as they are considered with the cooperating teacher, help the student, as no general discussion can, to value the worth of individual pupils with whom he will work now and later as a member of the teaching profession.

Learnings such as these are important aspects of the growth of the prospective teacher. Sound procedures in assigning the student to a student teaching situation can contribute to or negate such learnings. Those responsible for the education of teachers need to ask what the student is learning when the assignment is made by the college alone, when it is made in terms of the student's request based upon personal convenience, when it is made

without consultation with the selected cooperating teacher, who learns that he is to work with the student only upon his arrival or a day or two in advance of the time at which he reports for work. Only when the college, you—the cooperating teacher, and the student share in making the assignment can the process be a truly educative experience.

THE CONTINUOUS PROCESS OF MAKING ASSIGNMENTS

Even though the assignment is made with the care suggested above, the real test of its soundness can be made only as you and the student work together. In that sense the decision agreed upon must still remain tentative. Often it is helpful to establish a specific time, perhaps at the close of a week or two weeks, when you and the student will again discuss the matter and either confirm your original judgments or make definite recommendations for change.

The assignment to student teaching can also be thought of as a continuous process in the sense of needing to be looked at periodically to determine the length of time the student should continue in the particular situation, as well as the length of time he should work in a given area within the assignment. The nature of the learning process suggests several guides for the student, the cooperating teacher, and the college supervisor in making these decisions.

First, the length of the period of student teaching with a particular pupil group, and the time given to working with the group on a given problem or area of study, should be flexible in terms of the best interests of the student and the pupils. The decisions reached will vary according to the rate of growth and changing needs of the individual student.

Second, provision should be made for continuity in the study of a situation and for staying with a group long enough to see how activities develop and learnings are extended. There is need for the student teacher to stay with a situation for a period of time adequate to allow him to see and study the growth of learners resulting from the guidance given. To understand a situation, to take intelligent action in it, and to note change and how it came about are essential goals of the student teaching experience.

Third, decisions as to the length of time a student teacher continues with one cooperating teacher and whether he should engage in student teaching in another situation are contingent upon the opportunities in the given situation to meet the student's needs for contact with (1) the scope of the teacher's work in the school and community, (2) pupils of different socio-economic backgrounds, abilities, and maturity levels, and (3) different curriculum patterns and administrative organizations.

Fourth, withdrawal from a laboratory situation should be made with consideration for the particular activities the student is developing with children or youth. A contact should be terminated with regard for the best interests of the pupils and at the point where withdrawal can be satisfying to the student himself. While it would not be possible or advisable for a student always to stay in a given laboratory situation until a unit of experience is completed, those responsible for the growth of the student teacher must ask whether such arbitrary factors as the close of a week or the end of a quarter should be determiners of the length of the student teaching period.

When these guides are used in dealing with the periodic decisions which must be made regarding the assignment to student teaching, attention is rightly placed on the nature of the learning experience needed and provided for the student teacher. Focus is placed on the job to be done rather than on a specific plan or pattern for its accomplishment. Patterns will differ for different institutions and for different students within the same institution. The college student then experiences the meaning of the principle of individual differences. It becomes a matter of action-behavior and not just educational theory, to be forgotten when on one's own job.

Colleges and cooperating schools are finding ways to increase or decrease the length of the student teaching period in terms of the needs of the individual student. Providing a longer period of work in one laboratory situation for some students and several shorter periods in different situations for others is beginning to be recognized as sound practice. When students share in the decisions made, they come to understand that equality does not mean identity of experience. In situations where differentiation in the length of the student teaching assignment has not yet been

achieved, it is quite possible and necessary to vary activities within the assignment to meet individual needs, interests, and abilities. This variation may be in the particular activities undertaken within the classroom situation, the extent of out-of-class and all-school experiences, responsibility for work with parents and in community activities as a part of the student teaching experience, and special work with other pupil groups within the school situation.

Making assignments to student teaching on the basis of factors discussed in this chapter is the first step toward assuring the student a good beginning in student teaching. Other steps which you will find it helpful to take in getting ready for the student and in planning ways in which you may start work together are considered in the next chapter.

7

GETTING READY FOR AND BEGINNING WORK WITH YOUR STUDENT TEACHER

MANY young students approach the student teaching experience with hesitancy and uncertainty, some with real fear. There is much at stake for the teacher-to-be. True, he has learned a good deal about children and youth and how to guide learning experiences. But still he has many questions and uncertainties—Will I be able to do what is expected of me? What will these pupils be like? Will they like me and respond to my guidance? Will I be able to maintain desired standards of behavior? What will happen if I make a mistake? These are among the real worries of the prospective teacher, worries that are increased if the student's previous work has been largely out of books and in the college classroom.

The student teacher, however, is not the only individual involved in this cooperative undertaking. You, the cooperating teacher, also have concerns with which you probably feel you need help and about which you need further information—What does the college expect? What should be my relations with the college supervisor? How much can I expect the student to know and be able to do? How may I safeguard the interests of the youngsters and at the same time provide adequately for the student teacher? How can I teach boys and girls at the same time that I teach

someone else to teach them? How teach "through" another person? The extent to which these and related problems seem bewildering and confusing will depend upon your previous experiences in working with student teachers.

To some degree such questions and concerns—both those relating to guiding children and youth and those bearing on guiding a student teacher in the art of teaching—will always be a part of the thinking of the student teacher and the cooperating teacher. As long as teaching is recognized as a creative art, an art affected by sensitivity to the individuals involved, these questions must be considered each time work is undertaken with a new student teacher or with different pupils. In fact, some of these questions will recur, in the same or slightly modified form, as your student teacher grows and develops. These are questions which make teaching and the guidance of student teachers a continuously challenging and exciting experience—never routine, automatic, or dull.

The purpose of this chapter is to look at the major concerns of the prospective student teacher and his cooperating teacher to see what they mean for assuring good experience in the initial stages of student teaching. What is involved in getting ready for and beginning work with your student teacher so that his and your concerns become positive challenges to working effectively together in the interests of boys and girls?

WHAT NEEDS TO BE KNOWN AND DONE PRIOR TO BEGINNING STUDENT TEACHING

Contributing to a good beginning in student teaching is your responsibility along with that of the student teacher and those at the college working most closely with him. Each can take definite steps prior to the student's first day with pupils in the school situation. The interrelatedness of various activities carried on in the preparation for the student teacher's work can best be seen by focusing on your part in these activities.

Know the Student with Whom You Will Work

In many ways working with student teachers is like working with children or high school youth. Supervising and inducting the young student into teaching is basically teaching. The same

fundamentals governing teaching and learning apply here as apply in working with the youngest children or with high school youth. While differences of age and maturity, of areas of concern and problems to be investigated, are present in the unique situation of teaching pupils directly as well as through another person, the basic principles remain the same.

One of the principles of teaching at any level is to know the learner and start working with him where he is. Few teachers begin work with a group of pupils without knowing a good deal about them—the part of the community from which they come, their home backgrounds, their special interests, needs, and abilities. Before beginning work with a group, most teachers will know what school records say about individuals and will have talked with the teachers who worked with them recently. The data gathered contribute to understanding what can and needs to be done for learners. They suggest beginning points and give direction to the teacher's activities and to curriculum development.

The same principle applies to work with your student teacher. He, too, is an individual who brings with him to the student teaching situation his past experiences, his strengths and limitations. It is from knowing about him that you derive clues to areas in which he might have the most satisfying initial experiences, as well as clues to how fast or slowly you can go in sharing with him the responsibilities of teaching, and to the personal enthusiasms and problems which are a part of him and which will affect his work with pupils.

The kind of information desired and needed is suggested in the "Assignment to Student Teaching Record" described in the preceding chapter: the student's home and community background, his past experience with youth and children, his special interests and talents, the type of work for which he is preparing and the kind of position to which he aspires, previous community service and work experience, extent and nature of his travel experience, positive factors and limitations relating to health, personality characteristics, his program of college study and his present thinking about basic educational principles, college or other responsibilities to be met while engaged in student teaching, what he hopes to achieve through his experiences in student teaching, and what his major concerns may be as he looks forward to entering upon this phase of his professional study.

It may seem a rather big responsibility to secure information on all these points, and others which you may wish to add. This is true, but it is not too difficult a task when it is recognized that (1) other persons share in the task, (2) data are gathered over a period of time, and (3) clues given by the information gathered may save you the hours of later work that are necessary when unsound decisions have been made and must be corrected. A brief look at each of these three points suggests the worth of knowing as much as possible about the student teacher who is to work with you.

Involving other persons in gathering data about students. Many of the data about the student should be supplied by the college and the student himself. The "Assignment to Student Teaching Record," although designed to assist in intelligent placement of the student for his student teaching experience, provides much of the desired information. If your student is from a college that does not use any such record in the assignment process, the student himself will be able to supply many of the facts if you will prepare an inquiry form. If colleges know your desire to have such information, they will take steps to share student records with you. Data received in written form will need to be supplemented and interpreted through informal conferences with the student and with those who know him well at the college. The conference to test the soundness of the proposed assignment to student teaching recommended in Chapter 6, and other informal conferences that precede student teaching, can contribute information important in helping you and the student to make a comfortable and sound beginning in your work together.

Gathering data over a period of time. Not all the needed data can be gathered before beginning work with your student teacher. As you observe him and have further conferences with him, you will be collecting additional data and gaining new insights about information already available. Such will always be the case when working with human beings. Then too, the student will be more willing and ready to share certain information as he comes to know you better, sees how you use the data, and feels more secure in the situation. This does not negate or minimize

the importance of knowing as much as possible in advance of beginning work. Here, as in taking a motor trip, it is advisable to have maps available and to know approximate distances, the quality of the roads and the extent of their use, even though special interests and the particular feelings of the people involved as well as weather and unexpected events may result in changed plans as the trip develops.

Two things are especially important at any time in the data-gathering process: (1) that the information be exchanged in an atmosphere of mutual respect, and (2) that the student at all times know why you desire the information. Mutual respect and good human relations can be established and maintained only when purposes are clear and mutually understood. But there is another reason for the student teacher to know why you wish to gather particular data and what use you plan to make of them. For the teacher-to-be this is an important firsthand learning experience, an experience which helps him to understand the importance of knowing as much as possible about those whom you teach, an experience which suggests that the advice he has received at the college—*know your pupils*—is more than a theoretical concept, an experience which helps him see through his own work how such information is used in selecting and guiding learning activities. While his work in college courses should have made similar contributions, reinforcement and additional understandings come from the student teaching experience because of the unique importance of this experience to most students and the opportunities provided through the one-to-one relation of the student and his cooperating teacher.

Using clues gained to save time and avoid mistakes. The third factor which bears on using all available channels to get to know your student teacher relates to the use of knowledge to avoid errors. The more that is known about any learner, whether a child in the elementary school, a high school youth, or the college student about to engage in student teaching, the sounder the judgment can be in planning the kinds of experiences needed. When time is not taken to gather the essential data, when judgments are made hurriedly or without facts at hand, errors and less-than-the-best guidance are inevitable. It then becomes neces-

sary to do a twofold job. In order to move ahead, the errors made and the misconceptions which the student may have gained must be corrected. This is both a disconcerting and time-wasting experience for all involved.

There are some cooperating teachers, just as there are some teachers of children and youth, who feel that they may be prejudiced if they gather information about the student prior to beginning work with him. Of course there is such a danger, but not in the case of the professional worker who recognizes that all such data must be held tentatively and be subject to new insights which emerge as work proceeds. The individual is so complex, and there are so many variables and intangibles even in the best known instance, that the good teacher is never absolutely sure of his judgment regarding another individual. He uses all available data to seek clues that he can connect and test as he works with the student. He recognizes that factors in a student teaching situation may bring out in the student quite different reactions from those previously reported in his records—reactions which may be more or may be less positive. Also, elements may be changing in the personal life of the student, his health, family conditions, financial resources, or interest in a member of the opposite sex. Thus the data-gathering process must be a continuous one.

All available data should be at hand with each step, including the first day of work with your student teacher. Having such knowledge assures greater sensitivity to situations as they develop. For example, knowing that a student has had difficulty in keeping appointments and arriving on time may change the cooperating teacher's response to the student's late arrival for a conference from "Oh, that's all right; let's get to work" to "Do you find it difficult to get places on time? Is this a problem on which we should work?" The difference in the response may be the difference between letting the student deepen a negative behavior pattern and helping him to consider ways of working on his problem.

Plan for What Your Student Teacher Will Want to Know

Just as you want and need to know about your student teacher, so he is concerned about knowing the situation in which he will

work and the people with whom he will be associated. You, too, want him to know these things so that he may be more intelligent and understanding about what he sees as he works with you and better able to move directly into taking an active part in the situation. The college can help him with some of his concerns, but even then he will wish to check most of the points with you as the person intimately associated with the situation he is about to enter. Even when an item is one on which the college can give rather complete advice, such as the goals for the student's work, you will want to see that he gets to know you, the children, the curriculum, policies in your classroom, the school and community, and his responsibilities on the first day of student teaching.

GETTING TO KNOW AND UNDERSTAND YOU, HIS COOPERATING TEACHER. What are you like? Just what kind of person are you? What kind of professional worker? This is the central question in your student teacher's mind as he anticipates his work in student teaching. You are going to be the key person in his life during the weeks ahead, the person who will give him guidance—help, ideas, understanding, approval, criticism. He needs to know and to understand you, just as you need to know him.

He wants to know many of the same things about you that you want to know about him. What do you believe is good education for children and youth and what is your educational frame of reference? What do you conceive the teacher's role to be? What standards do you hold for pupils and for yourself? What will you expect of him—do you expect him to use his initiative and do the jobs that he sees need to be done, or do you want him to do only those things which you specifically identify for him to do? What is your concept of the student teacher–cooperating teacher relationship? How do you feel about having a student teacher and how do you envisage the two of you working together? What are your special interests, personality characteristics, your likes and dislikes, beliefs about everyday things on which you have strong feelings?

Communication is a two-way process. A thumbnail sketch or a more detailed statement which gives the student a picture of you as a person and a professional worker will help him to understand you better and contribute to a healthy interpersonal relationship.

Such a statement suggests a mutual sharing of information between you and the student. The following is such a personal-professional sketch prepared by one cooperating teacher.

JANET DERWOOD, COOPERATING TEACHER

I puzzled a bit about how I should head this statement and finally decided on what you see above. I look forward to our association as co-teachers of the sixth grade. We can work together more effectively if we know something about each other. As we begin our work, you may find it helpful to know the following things about me.

I took my undergraduate work at the college you are attending, but quite a few years ago. Since then I took an M.A. degree at State University and did some special work in child development. Sixth-graders are fascinating—some so very young and some pushing toward adolescence. You never can know enough about youngsters and they are always popping up with surprises. But that is part of the fun of teaching. I hope you will enjoy working with children as much as I do. But back to my professional preparation. Next summer I plan to continue my study of children at a special workshop at the University and right now I am taking an extension course dealing with photography. I am doing it just because it's a hobby—maybe I'll use it some time later with the children.

Perhaps I can best share with you my present thinking about teaching and learning by attaching a statement of my educational beliefs about a high quality learning experience. I find the eight items very useful as guides in selecting and developing the children's experiences. Maybe you have a similar set. Perhaps we can compare them at our first conference.

A high quality educational experience is one:

1. which is directed by clear purposes that are real to children (their interests and abilities as the starting point).
2. where learners cooperatively plan and develop the work.
3. which helps each individual to develop better purposes and better ways of realizing them.
4. which is developed to provide continuity (unity pervades the experience).
5. which emerges in understanding of fundamental concepts and generalizations (helps children to generalize).
6. which affects living (grows out of and leads back into the community).
7. which provides for a measure of success.
8. which provides for individual differences in interests, needs, and abilities of pupils.

It is easier to tell you about my professional background and thinking than to describe myself as a person. Maybe you have guessed that I do like people—something that is rather important for a teacher, too. I also like to hike and to read, and the youngsters' interests in baseball have made me quite a fan. Recently I have been working one evening a week on the Community Chest—as a member of a subcommittee. I feel rather strongly about everybody—teachers too—sharing in community activities.

You may have some questions that you would like to ask when we get together. I should, however, tell you something of my strong feeling about being prompt. Maybe you will think I am funny in this respect but I do value highly beginning on time. I feel that this is an important characteristic for all persons and something that we should help children develop. You will find, therefore, that while the children and I are very flexible in changing our schedule of work, we do begin on time. I trust that you will not find this particular characteristic of mine annoying. If you do, please let me know, so that we can talk it over and arrive at a good operational plan.

I look forward to working with you and to having your help in guiding the youngsters.

The student will also learn more about you through the informal and formal pre-student-teaching conferences. As conferences and social occasions help you to come to know him better, they also contribute to his better understanding of you, an understanding which should increase as you work together.

Getting to know the pupils. Next to you, the student most wants and needs to know as much as possible about the pupils with whom he will be working. And there are four major reasons why he should be helped to know something about the pupils before beginning work with them. First, it reinforces his understanding of the importance of knowing about learners as a basis for deciding what to teach and how to guide learning experiences. Second, it helps him to observe intelligently and to interpret the way in which you work with pupils—why Mary was given more time to complete the assignment, why Jim was expected to defend his position, while Michael's statement was not challenged, why Sue is insecure and is always seeking attention from you and the group, why Dick gets sleepy and inattentive by early afternoon. Third, knowing something about the various individuals—their backgrounds, strengths and limitations, special needs, interests—

the student teacher can early in his student teaching participate and share in the ongoing activities and assist in the guidance given. He will have a basis on which to decide how to act in particular situations, a basis which provides a reasonable degree of security for the student teacher and assures better guidance of children.

Fourth is the need to know about the pupils as a basis for meeting such personal concerns of the student teacher as these: Will they like me, what are their standards of behavior, what are they likely to do "to try me out," will I be able to maintain standards of behavior, what will they do if I make a mistake or can't answer their questions? It is well known that the problems of discipline loom large in the thinking of student teachers. These concerns of the student may motivate high interest in wanting to know about children and youth. While to you and other experienced teachers they are only indications of more basic problems that call for understanding of pupils, for the student teacher they are focal. They may be the concerns which help him to realize the other important reasons for studying children.

So important and so central in the teaching-learning process is the understanding of pupils thought to be that all of Chapter 8 deals with guiding the student in the study of children and youth. Suffice it at this point to note provisions that need to be made for the student to become acquainted with the pupils prior to beginning his student teaching. For some student teachers the first step is to learn the names of the pupils from a seating chart. Others begin to know pupils through a study of records—the cumulative records that you keep for each learner, including health data, the samples of their work that boys and girls keep as part of their records, background data that are a part of every record, reports that you have written about parent conferences and home visits, and data about the pupil's progress to share with parents and as official school records. These records should be made available to your student for study before or at least during the first days of student teaching. He may study them at a time convenient for him during school hours and after. So comprehensive a body of material cannot be mastered before student teaching, but the student can gain general impressions about individual pupils.

Information in records will take on new meaning and come

alive as you discuss with your student teacher what the information means for understanding each pupil. Provision needs to be made for one or more pre-student-teaching conferences to help the student interpret the records he has read and to answer specific questions about individual pupils. Through these conferences opportunity should also be provided for the student to discuss his personal concerns in his relations with the pupils, to discuss questions of "discipline" and good human relationships. It is appropriate that these conferences also consider the confidential nature of the information on the children and the care which must be exercised in its use.

The changing nature of data as a child grows and environmental circumstances are modified suggests that data are used primarily to give clues and to increase one's sensitivity to individuals and never as prejudicial facts. The student teacher should be urged to gain what he can from an initial study of pupil records and to add to that understanding by further study of them as he works with the pupils and comes to know them better. Little by little, more is learned about their problems, their needs, their concerns, and their interests.

FINDING OUT ABOUT ROOM POLICIES AND CURRICULUM PLANS. Along with his concern about his relations with the pupils, the student has many questions that focus on the general room organization and policies. What are acceptable standards of behavior relating to informal conversation with and among pupils, use of free time, leaving the room, rest and study periods, playground and lunchroom activities, use of the school library, collecting and distributing materials?

To know about these and other policies which you and the pupils have established is important primarily for two reasons. First, desirable continuity should be provided for learners, and when changes are made they should be made with full knowledge of the modification of behavior being asked of the pupils and with some consideration of its desirability at the given time. The second reason relates to the personal feelings of the student teacher. He wants to do "the right things" and not make mistakes in front of the pupils. As yet, he lacks the experience and maturity to give him confidence in dealing with the unexpected,

and "doing things differently" often seems a serious error on his part. The two factors taken together suggest the advisability of sharing with him before he begins student teaching the general room policies well known to you and the pupils. When continuity of policy is important and how changes which the student believes to be desirable might be introduced are questions that should be considered as they arise.

Discussion of how and when change may be made in established policies or routines will help your student with another of his concerns as he enters student teaching, namely, how free he is to do things differently from the way you do them. Every good student looks forward to student teaching as an opportunity to test some of the things about which he has been learning and which seem to him to be important. He should be encouraged in this experimental attitude, but always by helping him to see that decisions must be made with reference to the best interests of the particular group of learners. The college can and should include consideration of this problem as a part of its program of helping the student get ready for student teaching. However, you are in a unique position to help him to understand just what a particular proposal might mean for a particular pupil group and the thinking that must lie back of the decision reached.

One of the values you have in working with a student teacher is the benefit of exploring new ideas with him. He can bring different ideas and materials to your attention as you, in turn, help him to evaluate their worth in terms of the particular needs and interests of pupils. Prior to student teaching the student is probably ready to consider at least three things about room policies and routines: (1) the present major policies and ways of working being used by you and the children, (2) your attitude toward introducing different ways of working, and (3) procedures for considering any plan which deviates considerably from the usual classroom practice.

Interpretation of room policies and attitudes toward change can best be conveyed through conference. The conference time, however, can be shortened and made more meaningful if the student has previously become acquainted with the policies and has a copy of them for reference. Depending on your particular situation and, to some extent, the age or grade group with which

you are working, this may be accomplished by inviting the student to observe policy charts which the children may have printed or dictated to you, by a written statement prepared by pupils for the student teacher, by such a statement outlined by yourself or by a student teacher who is just completing a period of student teaching with you.

One of the most important aspects of policy with which you and your student teacher will be concerned is that relating to the selection and development of curriculum experiences. If curriculum guides or courses of study are used they should be made available to the student for study before he begins work. His study of them may well be a part of his work at the college, through which he is helped to interpret the guides, to select parts of them for thorough study and sections to survey for general concepts, and to see how the materials may be used as a resource during the student teaching period. Any help which you may give by way of general suggestions will be welcomed by your student teacher.

Even more than the general guides, your student teacher will need to become familiar with the particular units of work in which the pupils will be engaged when he begins his student teaching. He should have an opportunity to review your unit or block plans and to know how far the work will have been developed when he becomes a member of the teaching team. This will help him to familiarize himself with the content involved and the instructional materials being used, and to understand how you and the pupils are working together in the given area. Such preparation and understanding give him needed security and make it possible for him to participate actively when he begins his student teaching. The importance of *active involvement of the student* as a basic principle of learning has been noted. In order that the student be involved in learning the things you want him to learn, he must know what you are trying to accomplish, how you plan to go about it, something of the present setting, and what has preceded that which he shares in. This relates both to the nature of your planning and to the guidance of your student's observation of the teaching-learning situation. (For further discussion of guiding the student in planning and observing, see Chapters 9 and 13 respectively.)

The foregoing discussion assumes that the student begins work

with you *after* you and the pupils have been working together. Where it is the student's good fortune to begin his work with you at the beginning of the school year, he will gain understanding by helping you project and develop the block plans which will serve as a guide during the first days of school. Such plans will mean even more if he has had a part in their development. In either case, whether he joins in the planning or carefully studies your plans already in use, it will help your student if he can see the daily plans which will guide your work on the first day of student teaching. Whether or not this can be done in advance of his arrival at the school will be contingent upon how accessible you and your school are to the student before he actually begins his student teaching. The values to be gained by way of building security and contributing to intelligent observation and participation outweigh difficulties which may be encountered.

Among the "worries" related to plans and policies most often expressed by a student teacher are what to do if he doesn't know the answer to a question raised by the pupils, what to do if he makes a mistake in a statement of fact or a suggestion, how closely to stay with the plan of work as outlined, how to determine the advisability of changing plans in light of suggestions made by the pupils, and what to do if the situation moves more rapidly than anticipated and there is extra time. While many of these problems will have been discussed in pre-student-teaching seminars at the college, they take on new meaning with their actual appearance in the student teaching situation. Opportunity to discuss them with you, to know your reaction and point of view, will mean much to your student. It will help him to know your attitude toward pupils' sharing in the planning of experiences and to see how the unit or block plan provides knowledge of what should come next. He will recognize that no teacher can know the answer to all questions as he sees that on occasion you say, "I don't know, but I'll find out," or "I don't know, but let's see how we can find out." Discussion with you will help him to understand when and under what circumstances it is permissible to make a mistake and how to acknowledge and deal with it. Through planning with you he will come to appreciate your plans for helping him over the rough spots and uncertainties.

Such points of discussion are important prior to student teach-

ing. However, like the study of learners, understanding of curriculum policies takes on new depth as problems are met in the actual teaching-learning situation. Various points noted in the preceding paragraphs should be considered again and again as they arise in actual situations. Each consideration adds to the understanding necessary to developing the art of teaching.

KNOWING SOMETHING ABOUT THE SCHOOL AND ITS COMMUNITY. There is a great deal the student teacher wants to know before he begins his student teaching. Another whole area of concern is his relations to other staff members and the school administration, to parents, to custodians, and to the school community. This, too, is an important area if the student is to understand the interlocking relationships between the school and the community, if he is to share in your role as a teacher in the administration of the school, if he is to conceive of teaching as extending beyond the four walls of the classroom, if he is to have needed security for work in situations affected by general school policies. However, there is a limit to the amount of information and understanding which an individual can usefully digest in the weeks prior to student teaching. The amount and nature of ideas comprehended will, of course, differ for individuals in terms of their abilities and their previous contacts. The student who has had earlier contacts with children or youth and school situations will more quickly comprehend and retain for use essential data about the organization of a school and its policies. Your initial discussion of the school should relate to items of greatest concern to the individual student and those with which he will have to deal first.

The last sentence above is a general guide which may be applied in determining what steps to take first with your student. For example, if applied to contact with other staff members, it may mean making available to the student immediately the names of staff, administrative, and supervisory personnel. A trip through the school, meeting staff members with whom the student is most likely to be associated in the early days of student teaching, may be a second step. The principal, librarian, special teachers, nurse or other officer responsible for medical assistance, custodian, and special counselors are people the student needs to know very early. It may be that the principal would like to take the student

on such a tour and this would give them an opportunity to begin to know each other.

The same guide, when applied to helping the student learn about all-school policies, suggests that the student have access to such materials as a teachers' handbook, a pupils' handbook, and any other mimeographed or printed materials that deal with general school practices and regulations. Depending upon the particular school situation, the age or grade groups with which the student will work, the kinds of responsibilities you feel the student will be ready to deal with first, his particular interests and concerns, you may wish to call his attention to practices and factors relating to one or more of the following:

School calendar, school hours (pupils entering of building)
Fire and air-raid drill
Reporting accidents, first-aid service, health services
Playground rules (e.g., snowballing, use of sleds, pets, use before and after school)
Lost and found articles
Duties of safety patrol
Enrolling new pupils, readmission of pupils who have been ill
Passing in corridors, group movement within the building
Use of library, auditorium, gymnasium, audio-visual materials
Use of duplicating equipment; requisitioning supplies and equipment
Lunchroom regulations; policies regarding the noon hour
Physical examination of children; of staff
Testing program
Teachers' meetings; other professional and inservice meetings—student teachers' part in them
Teachers' library
Home invitations; pupil gifts; other non-school parent contacts
Parent-teacher meetings
Reports to parents
Central office records—attendance, books, field trips, transfers
Supervisory policies—principal, central office personnel
Reporting pupil and teacher absence
Special school services—store, bank

If an official handbook on general policies is not available, pupils in the upper elementary grades or in high school might undertake the preparation of such a handbook for student teachers. In some situations, each group of student teachers working in a school during a given semester or year might undertake the revision of such a handbook for the next students who will work in the school.

Preparing such a statement can be a valuable learning experience for pupils or student teachers.

The student will have gained some insight into the school community as he has studied pupil records and discussed pupil backgrounds with you and as he has learned about policies relating to work with parents. Sometimes a handbook of the community is prepared by the chamber of commerce or another local organization. Perhaps your school keeps a community resource file, listing major persons and situations which teachers and pupils frequently consult in carrying out their various activities. To prepare a file or handbook about the community may also be a useful project for pupils or student teachers. Many students find it helpful to drive or walk around the neighborhood to note the type of environment that surrounds the school, the socio-economic backgrounds of the pupils, and available resources, such as recreational facilities, transportation routes, library facilities, welfare agencies, ethnic groups, churches, and business establishments. If you can spare the time, your student will find it both interesting and useful to have your company and your help in his observation of community factors and community mores. If you cannot accompany him, you can be of help by calling attention to factors which he should particularly consider.

As in other areas, the student teacher will grow in his understanding of the community as he works with you and in the community. Perhaps the most important initial plans which you will need to make with respect to your student and the community are those related to building community understanding of the work of the public school in the preparation of teachers. It may be that the principal sees this as one of his contributions to the preparation of teachers and will take the initiative in working with the school board, in arranging with the parent-teacher association to have a meeting given to a discussion of the student teaching program and what this means for the school and for the community, or in arranging special discussions with appropriate civic groups. You may well share in these activities. If such steps are not taken by the administration in behalf of all the student teachers who will be working in your school, and even if they are, you will want to alert the parents of your pupils to the particular student who is coming to work with them. This may be done through the usual

channels which you use to share experiences with parents—mothers' meetings, room PTA groups, informal contacts. Members of the college staff will be glad to describe the college program and otherwise share in these efforts to build understanding. Your efforts and the attitudes and responses of community personnel should be shared with your student teacher for he, too, is interested in knowing what to expect and what will be expected of him. While his advisers at the college can offer sound general suggestions, your counsel will have the added reality of a specific school in a particular community.

If your student is to live in the school community during the period of student teaching, he will need help in locating, and making decisions regarding, a place to live. In some situations the college aids in this matter, but the local school group is more often in a position to be of real assistance. Frequently the local administrative group has a file of possible locations and takes responsibility for advising the student. Your part in this case, or that of the college representative, may be offering suggestions as to the type of living arrangement which would seem to be needed by the particular student, as determined by a study of the "Assignment to Student Teaching Record" and other data which you have gathered in your efforts to become acquainted with the student. Where the student lives, the attitudes of those about him, adequacy of provision for quiet study, and opportunities for association with young people can make a great difference in the student's success in student teaching. Locating and selecting appropriate living arrangements can be a vital learning experience, as the student teacher considers what to look for and ask about, reasonable costs, how to avoid involvements in in-groups or out-groups, or how to sense community mores and attitudes toward members of the teaching profession. This experience will help the student to make similar decisions more easily when he begins his first year of teaching as a full-fledged member of the profession.

KNOWING WHAT HIS SCHEDULE WILL BE THE FIRST DAY OF STUDENT TEACHING. When should he arrive? Should he sit in some particular place? What will he be expected to do? Will he work only with one cooperating teacher or should he go with the pupils to their special classes? to the playground? Will he be expected to

spend some time in special offices, such as that of the guidance counselor? The answers to these questions may seem obvious to you. For the student they are not so clear and discussion of them will add greatly to his security. The answers given, of course, will vary for different students and in terms of the organization of the school. Regardless of the form of organization, two steps should be taken. The first is to provide a work space for your student teacher. If conditions are crowded, it may be necessary to share your desk; it is better, of course, if he can have a table or desk of his own. As small as this item may seem, it is important in terms of the security and the feeling of belonging it provides.

The second step is to share with your student teacher your schedule of activities for the day that he will first be with you. This may be done when you discuss curriculum plans and room policies. It is probably advisable that he work with you and the pupils throughout that day, whatever your responsibilities may be, leaving the scheduling of experiences with other groups and activities until the two of you have become acquainted and can plan together. This kind of schedule for his first day assures the student that he will have the help of the person he knows best so far, and it gives him a guide for his activities, so that he at least knows where he is supposed to be, the general nature of what will be happening during the day, and his part in the work.

Prepare Your Pupils for a New Personality and a "Team" of Teachers

You and the student teacher are only two members of the group involved in this venture. The part played by parents, other community members, and your colleagues has been noted in relation to making plans for the student teacher. But what about the pupils? They are directly involved in working with the student teacher, whose association with them affords new and different opportunities and experiences. They need to know about the student teacher, just as you would discuss with them other events in which they are to share—who is coming, why, what needs to be done and who will do what. Knowing about the student teacher and what having a second teacher means for them are items to be considered in cooperative planning with your pupils.

What this cooperative planning involves depends upon particular factors in your situation—the age of the pupils, whether this is their first experience having a student teacher, what you know and can tell them about this young student. In any case you should work cooperatively with your pupils in this instance as you do in all other activities. Planning with boys and girls for the student teacher's work will help the young teacher in gaining the respect and acceptance by the pupils which means so much in getting off to a good start and makes easier the adjustment to each other that is necessary for working effectively and happily.

Whatever type of cooperative planning is appropriate to your group, you will doubtless want to keep several things in mind. First, it is important that the pupils look upon the student teacher as another teacher, rather than as a student. With younger children, having another teacher becomes important as they consider the many advantages: special competence which the new teacher brings, another person to assist when several individuals need help at the same time, an opportunity to work in smaller groups on the same or different problems. When these points are illustrated by referring to specific instances in the past experiences of the children, they take on meaning and the student is looked upon as another teacher who, like you, is to be welcomed, valued, and actively involved in the ongoing activities in the classroom.

In the case of older pupils, the student teacher becomes "another teacher" as you discuss why he is to be with the group and the importance of their and your part in the education of teachers. The student teacher becomes more than a student when his previous preparation is noted, when his activities are related to those of the medical intern, when his special competence is noted, when the complexity and increasing importance of education in our society is considered, when the advantages in having more than one teacher are recalled, and when his functions and responsibilities are identified as commensurate with yours. Which of these, and other related points, are considered and stressed with your group depends upon which will have most meaning for them. Just one caution. The importance of teaching, the competence required, the careful preparation which the student has made and how the work in the school situation reinforces that preparation, the student's responsibilities as paralleling yours, should be the

point of focus. Care should be taken not to stress the competence of the student to the point where the pupils expect so much from him that he is almost bound to disappoint them. Setting pupil sights too high is quite as devastating for all concerned as failing to prepare for the student's arrival.

Second, your attitude in making plans for the young teacher is more important than what you say. Your eagerness or your reluctance, your willingness to take time to discuss and make plans for the new arrival or your haste to get on "to more important things," your confidence or your hesitance about the mutual help which will result from this relationship—all these tell pupils your real attitude toward the student teacher.

Third, pupils should share responsibility for preparing for the young teacher. In discussing what the student teacher wants to know about the laboratory situation, reference was made to the part pupils may take—preparing a written statement of room policies, a handbook of school practices and policies, or even thumbnail sketches of themselves as notes of introduction. Whether the preparation of such written statements is a valuable activity for the pupils to engage in depends upon your particular situation. For some groups it may be better to share such information with the young teacher through meetings with committees of pupils or through a combination of written statements and a pupil committee which enlarges upon or deals with factors not included in the statements. Committees may also show the student around the building and the neighboring community, and may assume responsibility for meeting the new teacher on his arrival the first day and assisting him in taking care of his coat and hat and the like. Whatever approach is used, pupils should share in planning how to help the student become acquainted with them and their activities, what to do to help him feel "at home" when he arrives, and some of the things that can be done when the additional help of a second teacher is available.

Clarify Your Relation to the College and Its Supervisory Representatives

Just as you and the student teacher act as a teaching team working with children or youth, so you and the college supervisor are

a team for advising the student teacher. Your common goal is to help your student become the best teacher possible. Each of you has a special, but related, contribution to make in achieving that goal. You bring intimate knowledge of the pupils and their particular learning situations to helping the student teacher plan for, carry out, and evaluate his teaching. The college supervisor contributes the resources of the college in dealing with problems that you and your student face. He helps the student to relate his new experiences to his previous work and to utilize past learnings appropriately as he deepens those understandings by applying them in new, firsthand situations. So that the special contribution which each of you can and needs to make to the student's work may be realized, it is important that your efforts be interrelated and supportive of each other.

This takes teamwork and mutual understanding. Working together with the student will contribute much to such understanding. But, an exchange of ideas before the student comes to you will be helpful both in coordinating your efforts and in dealing with the questions which need to be answered if you are to feel secure in your work as a cooperating teacher. First, there are the questions that relate to understanding the college program and the general educational point of view developed with the student through his previous courses in education. As suggested in Chapter 3, you should not hesitate to ask the specific questions which will help you know and understand the ways in which the college works with its students and what is the generally accepted educational frame of reference. It is often helpful for you and the college supervisor to exchange ideas about educational values and principles. You may wish to do this in informal discussion or through the exchange of a written set of basic principles.

Where educational points of view are quite different, it is important to discuss how this will affect the student teacher and to agree on some operational policy. The decisions reached may differ for different students. If this is a first student teaching experience and the student has had few other laboratory contacts, a pre-student-teaching conference with the college supervisor may suggest the advisability of a change in assignment of the student. If this is a second student teaching period, a difference in points of view may be the means of providing experiences

needed by the student to study the meaning and implications of a different set of educational values. For example, suppose a student worked during his first assignment in a classroom where the cooperating teacher used educational principles that he found compatible with his own. Here he increased his understanding of how these principles could be applied in dealing with teaching problems, but had little opportunity to observe or test what could happen if other principles were used. This student may need experience in a classroom where practices are based on principles other than his own to see what they mean when applied to teaching problems. Knowing this is important for your guidance of the student as well as for the contribution to be made by the college supervisor.

It is equally important that the student and his college supervisor know that the educational point of view which you hold will be used by the student teacher as well as yourself because of the need to provide continuity for the pupils. Such understanding gives a basis for making decisions about how to deal with difficulties created for the student teacher who is asked to do things in ways that differ from the ones he has been taught by the college. The college supervisor may agree to take added responsibility for helping the student to see just what he would have done differently in a situation if his own principles had been used as a guide to action in teaching. Similarly, you will want to take time, when you and your student evaluate a teaching situation and plan for the one to follow, to outline what major changes would be made if the student's principles were being used as guides. In cases, such as that just outlined, where there are fundamental differences in educational thinking, it is important that the student teacher share in deciding how differences shall be dealt with. Sharing in such decision making clarifies the role of each of the individuals involved and contributes to the security which is essential for effective teaching and learning.

A second group of questions for discussion with the college supervisor relates to steps taken by the college to help the student become ready for student teaching. What has been done to help the student clarify his goals for this experience? Is he clear about what he hopes to achieve? Your review of his statement in the "Assignment to Student Teaching Record" may give you the answer.

You may also wish to see any generalized statements of goals the college staff has shared with those entering student teaching. What has been said about teaching plans? What has been indicated about the amount of observation to be done before beginning teaching? Has the student been given any guides for observation? Answers to questions like these help you to know the background and expectations which your student brings to his work with you, to see more clearly items which you need to discuss with him, and to feel more confident about what is expected of you.

There is a third area of questions about which you may be concerned. They are closely related to the previous questions but have specifically to do with college policies. How much of the time is the student supposed to teach? What specific experiences are you expected to provide for the student? Should the student observe and possibly participate in out-of-class activities? in staff activities? Will he continue with non-class activities at the college during student teaching? Who is responsible for evaluating the student's work at the close of the student teaching period? Is a grade given? What form of evaluation is used? How often will the college supervisor visit the student teacher? Will there be advance notice of his coming? What are his purposes in making such visits? Will he expect the student to be teaching? When he does come, should you give the student major responsibility even though you are scheduled to teach? These are questions that all cooperating teachers think about. They are points of inquiry and concern which should be raised and discussed with college representatives. Your action can be more intelligent, and you will feel more confident, if requirements can be established, if it is known that the college wants its students to have contact with the major activities in which the teacher engages, if it is agreed that decisions should be made in terms of the best interests of the pupils and the student teacher rather than fixed regulations.

Some points of mutual understanding can be arrived at best through pre-student-teaching conferences between the college supervisor and yourself. Others will be taken up in two-way or three-way conferences (including the student teacher) as the student enters upon his work with you. Still others may be helpfully considered in special seminars or workshops for cooperating teachers which the college may organize prior to or during the

student teaching period. The two-way conference with the college supervisor is always possible and is a step which you may well initiate. You need not hesitate to suggest your interest in workshops or other activities which you feel would be helpful in carrying out the very important work of inducting the neophyte into the profession of teaching. College personnel are sometimes hesitant in taking the initiative lest they make undue demands upon your time, but they value these contacts and recognize their importance.

It may seem, as you reflect on this discussion, that too much emphasis is placed on getting ready to start work with your student teacher. Actually the time is not so great if each of the persons involved makes his contribution. The time that is required is time well spent. A good beginning adds greatly to the success of subsequent steps. With sound preparation the first day of student teaching will be a happy and successful experience for all concerned.

THE FIRST DAY THE STUDENT TEACHER IS WITH YOU

If you have been able to carry out the major steps in preparation discussed in the preceding section, you and your student will have planned together for the first day—when he will arrive, what the activities of the day will be, and what the student will do by way of participating or taking responsibility. If, however, you are working with a college that does not advise you very far in advance regarding the particular student who is to be with you, you may only have had an opportunity to meet the student socially and have a short chat. In this case your primary effort has probably been to establish an "at ease" feeling, telling a bit about the pupils and some of the interesting things that have been happening recently and learning something of the student's interests. Or, your situation may be even more difficult if you meet the student for the first time when he reports for the first day of student teaching. Whatever your situation may be, three major guides should be kept in mind in working through the first day: (1) your student should be introduced in a way that gives him status; (2) your plans should provide for his involvement from the beginning; and (3) you should take time at the end of the day to

talk with the student about what has happened and share with him your planning for the next day.

Give the Student Status in Your Introduction

Introducing the young teacher on his arrival the first day is not unlike introducing a friend coming to one's home for the first time. The same elements are essential. First there is your welcome and greeting of your new colleague, which lets the student know he is wanted and conveys to any of the pupils who may have already arrived that you are happy to have a co-worker. Then, as in your home, provision needs to be made for the student to know where to place his personal belongings. This you may do yourself or, even better, this may be accomplished by introducing the student to a pupil who may be nearby, requesting that he help the student in this matter. This can provide some important learnings. The pupil and the student may learn something about making an introduction while you may gain some insight into the student's response to the pupil as you observe the two carrying out this mission. Does the student talk with the pupil? Does he respond only to comments initiated by the pupil?

As in one's home, there is the need to involve the new arrival in the ongoing activities of the group, helping him to find his place in terms of location and of sharing in what the group is doing. If the pupils have not arrived, you may show the student the desk or table at which he can work and keep his materials, checking with him just where he will work during the first part of the day, as the boys and girls are arriving, or you may have him share in whatever you are doing at the time. If the pupils have made plans for the student teacher's arrival, this may mean being introduced to one or more of them who in "getting ready for the new teacher" have agreed to tell him about their work and to ask him to share in the things they plan to do while the other pupils are arriving. Because so many individuals are involved and they arrive at school at different times, it usually will not be possible to make individual introductions to each pupil, as can usually be done in the more intimate home situation.

When the pupils have all arrived and the work of the day is

about to begin, your new colleague should be introduced to the entire class. This is an important step in helping the student teacher to get off to a good start in building respect and confidence in the minds of the pupils. What you say should bespeak your enthusiasm for this new co-worker, provide each pupil with a clear-cut pronunciation of the young teacher's name and its spelling, and stimulate a feeling of "it's good to have an added teacher who . . ." by pointing to ways in which the student teacher relates himself to the interests of the group, and thereby give him a status position in the group. The following illustrate meaningful introductions used with younger and older pupils.

> This is Miss Green, who is going to help us. As you know, we are very fortunate to have her work with us because she knows how to write music. Will you help us write the music for the songs that we make up, Miss Green? Maybe, too, she will help you with your harmonica, Jack.

> I would like you to meet Mr. Robinson, who will be our co-worker this semester. We are glad to have you with us and we look forward to the special help that you can give us as a result of your experience on the college paper. We, as you know, are responsible for the school paper. It will be good to have your help on this and our other work.

Each of the foregoing introductions presupposes prior discussion and planning with the pupils for the young teacher. Some additional items (see page 145) may be included in the introduction if it has not been possible to have such preliminary planning with the pupils.

Involve the Student as a Participant from the Beginning

Contrary to the direct involvement of the student teacher on the very first day, implied in the preceding section, some colleges and cooperating teachers recommend a period of several days to several weeks of observation by the student before he begins to participate overtly in the ongoing activities. There are two major reasons why it is suggested here that the student become a participant as soon as he enters upon the student teaching situation and that any extended observation be deferred until toward the end of the period of student teaching or later.

Helping the student to feel at ease and secure in the new situation. Perhaps his feeling is similar to that which you have experienced when invited to a gathering, social or professional, where you knew few of the persons present. What were your feelings? Were you ever ill at ease or unsure about what to do? Did you ever wish you had a definite assignment, so you would know just where to go, and had something to keep you "properly" occupied? If you are to pour at a tea, to escort a special guest to the speaker's table, or to be responsible for room arrangements and serve as hostess in helping people find a committee room, you don't have to worry whether you will know anyone to talk to or what is expected of you. You know where to go and what to do, and your thoughts go to the job to be done rather than to worry about real or potential happenings. The same applies to your student as he enters the student teaching situation. He needs a specific responsibility which he knows about in advance of his arrival, if at all possible, and which he can carry out successfully. Perhaps it is to be at hand if Jane and Billy need help in siphoning the aquarium before school, or to record the conversation of the children engaged in dramatic play in the playhouse, or to assist the committee setting up the science experiment to be used later in their class in general science, or to check needed materials in the library. The particular responsibility, like pouring tea, may not be difficult in and of itself, but it is a source of great security to the newcomer and is a contribution to the ongoing activity.

Applying principles of learning in involving the student from the beginning. The second reason for at once involving the student teacher actively in the teaching-learning situation grows out of what is known about the learning process. Not only does the individual "learn to do by doing," but what is learned in any situation depends upon what he responds to in that situation. While the individual responds to those elements of a situation which have meaning for him, what has meaning is affected by the responsibilities one has accepted. Responsibilities give focus to what one sees and does. This focus is especially needed in the early days of student teaching when the student has a limited background of experience to help him understand the teaching-learning situation that he observes. Even to the most experienced,

a classroom is a complex situation. The complexity, together with the student's limited background of firsthand experience, points to extended observation as having doubtful learning value for the beginning student teacher.

When you and your student plan some specific things for which he will be responsible in the situation, his attention is focused, he views the situation in terms of his commitments, and relates the various elements to what he is to do. Further, his attention can be directed toward those factors about which he is ready to learn and which are held to be needed and desired learnings. He is also learning to teach by actually teaching.

What your student's responsibilities may be on the first day and thereafter, of course, will be conditioned by his needs and background of experience as they relate to the particular activities in which the youngsters are engaged. His experiences on the first day in an elementary grade may include such activities as reading an exciting story, working with a small group of children, getting materials ready for a class activity, playing with pupils on the playground or in the gym, participating in the music activities of the group, going with a committee to discuss a special problem with the principal, answering questions of individuals during a work period, or sharing in class discussions. If the first day is in a secondary school, the student teacher's involvement may include such activities as working with a committee preparing a bulletin board display, working with individual pupils on requests for help with articles for the school paper, preparing materials for class use, participating in class discussions, attending an assembly with pupils, or working with a special group during a club meeting. Whatever the particular ways in which the student becomes a participant in the activities underway with learners during his first day of student teaching, the following two general points should be kept in mind.

Your student's participation can be intelligent, he can feel some degree of security, and you can expect his learning to be in desired directions, only as he understands what you and the pupils are trying to accomplish and your plans for doing so. Share your planning with your student—why you are going to do certain things, what you hope to accomplish, and what you are working toward at the particular time—as a necessary first step to his being

intelligent about what he is doing. Reference has already been made to the importance of such sharing prior to the first day of student teaching (see pages 134; 145). If, unfortunately, you do not know about your student in time to make this possible, one of his first acts of participation upon arrival may well be to study your plans.

Rather than having the student look at the pupils "from afar," invite him to be one of the group—walking about among the pupils as you do, watching individuals at work and helping as needed, moving with the pupils as they leave their classroom for special activities, joining them in various parts of the classroom as they form a circle or move to the front of the room for a particular activity. Real involvement, however, means more than physical presence and close proximity. Your student can and should be a participant, from the first day of student teaching, in the group's discussions. Expect him to make suggestions and contributions and to offer opinions as a regular member of the group and as a colleague teaching with you.

Plan Cooperatively with Your Student from the Beginning

The type of cooperative teaching implied above may take one of several forms. It includes planning work cooperatively, preparing and organizing teaching materials, assuming responsibility for making a particular contribution or developing an aspect of the work with pupils, raising a question or making an additional point when ideas do not seem to be clear to the learners. To illustrate, the student working with pupils concerned about a local strike involving their fathers might be asked by the cooperating teacher to share his recent summer experiences working in a factory. "Mr. Henderson, didn't you work in the Dodd Canning Factory last summer when the strike was called?" When going over the cooperating teacher's plans for the day, it may have been agreed that the student would come prepared to make such a contribution when suggested by the classroom teacher's comments. Knowing that he has an active part to play keeps the student's attention focused on the developing discussion. As he becomes better acquainted with the situation he will make other kinds of

contributions while teaching cooperatively with you and while you are taking major responsibility for guiding the learning activities. He will make suggestions in addition to those made by pupils, will help to clarify ideas by asking a question of you or a pupil, or will pick up a point which may have escaped you.

Teaching cooperatively has several values. The one emphasized thus far is the provision made for the active involvement of the student teacher. Knowing what you are seeking to do and his responsibility in helping you accomplish it, the student thinks along with you as each step of the work develops. There is less chance of his wondering what things are all about or of his not knowing what is expected of him. He may be uncertain which of several possibilities is best, just as you are and every teacher is at times, but he knows the purposes you have in mind and how you plan to work in achieving them. Two other major contributions derived from teaching cooperatively bear directly on assuring a good beginning in student teaching. When the student teacher makes a contribution on the first day that he is with the group, it at once establishes him as a co-worker, a second teacher. If his first several days are used to observe only, in the minds of some pupils he comes to be a "watcher" who is trying to find out how to teach, rather than a person who has reached a stage of readiness to begin teaching. Making some direct contribution the first day also serves as an "ice breaker," relieving initial tension as the student hears his own voice and finds he can speak with pupils in a way that is well received by them. Making relatively small (in amount of time taken and responsibility demanded) but important contributions gradually builds the confidence and security so needed later when he assumes the leadership role of the teaching team and you act as the contributing member. The transition from participating member to leader should be gradual.

One contribution resulting from teaching cooperatively bears directly upon the days when the student teacher will take over the leadership role. Although this chapter deals with the beginning days of student teaching, it may be advantageous to look ahead and comment briefly on this added value, so that the worth of cooperative teaching may be viewed as a whole. When the student teaches with you, pupils gain a concept of how two teachers work together. This concept will carry over when the student

teacher is assuming major responsibility and you are participating and assisting. This makes it possible for you to offer suggestions and raise questions without the pupils feeling that the young teacher is new and not fully adequate. It gives you freedom, without in any way suggesting the shortcomings of the student teacher, to make each experience the best possible for the learners. Further, it makes it possible for you to give the student teacher the help that he needs at the time that he needs it. To be able to work in this way is of great importance as you guide pupils and student teachers.

Another value of cooperative teaching might be mentioned in passing, namely, the value to the student teacher in learning to teach cooperatively with another teacher. This will become increasingly important for young teachers as they work in core or other programs in which a team of teachers work with pupils.

Take Time to Reflect on the First Day of Student Teaching and Plan Next Steps

Much happens in a teaching day. What happened during the student's first day with you probably seems to the student even more complicated and exciting than it was in reality. There are amusing incidents to be commented on, puzzling bits that need to be talked over, questions and problems that need to be dealt with, and decisions that need to be made regarding work for the next day. Just as pre-student-teaching planning was needed to help the student participate intelligently on the first day, so time is needed to plan together for the second day. An opportunity for a conference at the close of the first day of student teaching is a "must." There are things that you and your student teacher want to share with each other, things that each wants to know about the other's feelings about events that happened, things that each wants to know about what the other will do in working with the pupils on the next day. While an evaluative and planning conference has real merit at the close of any and every day, it has special values and is especially needed at the close of the first day. Time for this conference, even though difficult to arrange, is time which does much in assuring a good beginning in student teaching, time

which pays big dividends toward lightening your load as a cooperating teacher later on.

This conference, at the close of the student's first day of student teaching, should be guided so as to contribute further to four goals which have been a part of your thinking throughout the days of getting ready for your student: (1) to develop good human relations and a sound feeling of security; (2) to build understanding of what you do to help learners and why; (3) to help the student learn how to outline plans for working with the pupils tomorrow; and (4) to determine what participation on his part will provide the greatest growth for all concerned.

Reflection contributes to good human relations. To contribute to good human relations and a feeling of security, the conference should provide for an initial informal exchange of ideas. The idea may be an amusing incident, a comment about a pupil or the group as a whole, a question as to why a certain thing was done or not done, why Jim was excused when Mary was not, whether children of this age always need so much help with . . . Relations with your student teacher will be conditioned by your attitude toward the comments he makes, by your unhurried manner and sincere willingness to discuss even a seemingly minor comment, and by your ability to recognize errors which you may have made and to make or receive suggestions. In beginning the conference with comments, reactions, or inquiries, you need to be prepared to take the initiative. If you have had little or no opportunity to meet your student teacher previously, or if he tends to be timid or reserved, your initial comment (such as, "A first day like this must seem very confusing," or "Let's start by exchanging ideas about anything that is on our minds") may prove to be a rhetorical question to which you will need to give the first response. You will also need to be ready to deal positively with a naïve comment like, "They are such a cute group of children!"

Reflection builds understanding of reasons for action. Fortunately, these different goals are not achieved through distinct and separate parts of the conference. The naïve comment and the amusing incident, as well as the point of basic inquiry, can be made to contribute to the second goal—understanding why

you work as you do with pupils. "Aren't the children cute!" Even this vacuous statement merits a response from you that contributes to the student's positive thinking about learners and to his better understanding of basic educational principles which guide your work with them. Your response may highlight a few of the differences among individuals in the group.

> They are interesting children. The fact that they are so different—one from the other—adds to that interest. For example, Sally is . . .

Your student teacher gains further insight into the importance of the principle of individual differences and what it means in your teaching. Take another illustration, a comment which you may offer:

> Remember when we were discussing . . . I believe I fell into the all-too-common pitfall of trying to move ahead too quickly. I feel that I didn't provide adequately for the youngsters to share in the setting of goals and outlining of plans. Nick and Trudy really didn't see what we were trying to do, if their later questions are any indication. Remember when Nick asked . . . Did you note any other evidence of lack of clarity of purpose?

A discussion of this point will help your student to see, through a particular incident, the importance of the learner's purpose and the central role of "meaning" in the learning process.

Taking time to help the student understand why you do the things you do is very important and you can't take it for granted that he knows why. Keep in mind that the same basic educational principles apply to your work with him as apply to the guidance of children or high school youth. He, too, acts in terms of the "meaning" a situation has for him, and he needs your help in building meaning. Talk things over so that you are sure that your student understands the principles governing your action. Many decisions that you make as you work with pupils may seem to the student teacher to be snap judgment. Others, made as quickly, may make him feel that you know so much, more than he can ever hope to know. Unless you talk to him about your activities with the pupils, how will he know that seemingly spur-of-the-moment decisions are based upon your experience and knowledge, upon your ability to use a workable set of basic guides to action? Help him to see and understand the principles which you seem to use almost subconsciously. Pull them out, look at

them together, and test how they were used. Probably the most important thing you can do is help your student to develop for himself a set of basic guides-to-action and to learn how to apply them quickly and appropriately in a variety of situations. You may help him achieve this by starting, in this first-day conference, to include in any statement you make the "because" or reason behind your action, and by inviting him to ask you "why" whenever he wonders what lies back of your proposal or action taken.

Reflection is basic to planning next steps. As you and your student reflect on happenings of the day and test the principles that were in operation and those that were neglected, it is a natural step to consider plans for the next day—the third goal. Perhaps planning grows out of the discussion of the comment, "Aren't they cute children!" when the consideration of individual differences prompts a look at planning for those differences in a work or study period, or in relation to a written assignment. Or, planning together may enter the conference when, following the discussion of your mistake in not involving the pupils adequately in developing activities in a given area, attention turns to how to handle the work in this area tomorrow so as to overcome the difficulty. Or, planning may result from a discussion of a piece of work that moved forward with satisfaction to all concerned. You and the student teacher may then consider how the work should develop tomorrow to have the same high level of learning experience.

On this first day of student teaching, the planning done for the next day may be largely your responsibility. The student teacher will be an active or a rather passive participant in the conference, depending upon his background of experience and his understanding of the teaching situation and feeling of security in it. Even though he be overtly quite passive, the conference can be an important learning experience for him. Invited by you to participate, the student has certain responsibilities which help him focus on the planning process even though he makes few actual contributions. His major role may be that of following your thinking and raising questions or accepting proposals which you make. He has an opportunity in this conference to see a teacher's mind at work on the planning process. In subsequent planning confer-

ences he will take increasing initiative in making proposals. (For a more detailed discussion of guiding the student teacher in planning, see Chapter 9.)

Reflection leads to clarification of each person's role. As you and the student outline plans for work with the pupils, it is natural to work on the fourth goal (noted on page 159)—to determine how the student teacher will participate in the work of the next day. The principle of individual differences applies to your student teacher as it does to the pupils. Student teachers vary tremendously in ability and in readiness to assume the many responsibilities of the teacher. Accordingly, it is a negation of the principle of individual differences to assume a sequence of teaching activities for all student teachers. The student teacher working with you now may be ready, because of his pre-student-teaching experiences and his personal confidence and poise, to work with the group as a whole. The student who was associated with you last year, whose contacts with pupils were limited to a few group observations as a part of courses in psychology and education, and who felt hesitant and a little fearful of youngsters and his own ability, was ready in the first days of student teaching only to follow your leads and gradually to work independently with individuals or a small group of learners. There is little to justify the proposal that all student teachers begin by working with individuals, then small groups, and finally the class as a whole. Further, the principle of individual differences suggests that the student teacher's readiness may vary in relation to different types of activities with pupils. Your student teacher may be ready, because of his travel experiences, to lead the class in a discussion of the Philippines, as a part of their larger study of the problem of colonization. He may feel much less secure in the consideration of problems met in running the school store and can make his best contribution by helping you prepare instructional materials or by working as a cooperating member of the teaching team, raising questions and commenting from time to time. Having blocked out the plans for the next day, you and the student teacher together determine how you will work in carrying out those plans and what part each of you will take.

THE ESSENTIALS OF A GOOD BEGINNING IN STUDENT TEACHING

The first day of teaching together has come to an end and plans have been made for the next day. You and your student teacher may or may not wish to reflect on those plans when you are alone. Each of you should be able to say, "It has been a good day. We're off to a good start." Doubtless, this is just what you can say because the following essentials of a good beginning have been carried out.

- Each of you has tried to be yourself. You have approached each other with trust, confidence, respect for what each can bring to the other.
- Each looks upon your work together as a "we" process, a team of teachers working together in the interests of children and youth.
- Differences in thinking and acting are respected. No one has "all the answers" and an experimental attitude is valued.
- Questions can be asked and each individual can admit he doesn't know without losing status.
- Time has been taken to explain why things are done and beginnings have been made in building basic guides or principles as helps to intelligent action.
- Differences in abilities, needs, and interests have been recognized and valued through:

  Careful study of all data about the individuals involved.

  Allocation of responsibilities in keeping with the known data; a gradual but not graded induction.
- Provision has been made for the active involvement in the teaching process of both members of the teaching team—by planning and teaching cooperatively, by sharing in the more mechanical and "spade work" aspects which are a necessary part of creative teaching.
- The complexity of a teaching-learning situation, the many things that need to be known and understood, and the changing nature of the factors involved have been recognized. Neither the cooperating teacher nor the student teacher has been expected to "master" the data studied in an endeavor

to become acquainted with each other, the pupils, and the particular room and school situation. Both will continue to use these data in guiding the activities of pupils, and the co-operating teacher will use them in guiding the student teacher's experiences.

How these essentials of a good beginning in student teaching are used and built upon in further work with your student teacher is the focus of the remainder of this volume.

8

GUIDING STUDENTS IN STUDY OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Good teaching on any level actually begins with careful study of learners in their social setting. Specific needs, interests, and abilities of a group of pupils and of individuals within the group become the bases on which a teacher plans for work with them. Once a teacher has gathered pertinent data on learners in his class and has clarified his own educational principles, goals, and values, he then prepares his plans for teaching. Armed with his advanced planning, he undertakes cooperative planning with learners and guides them in their learning activities. Evaluation of the progress made toward goals which have been identified by both teacher and pupils becomes a continuous part of the process of teaching.

In summary, specific aspects of the process of teaching can be identified as: (1) studying the learners in their social setting, (2) preplanning for work with them, (3) planning cooperatively with learners, (4) guiding them in carrying out agreed-upon plans, and (5) evaluating the progress toward goals set up cooperatively by teacher and learners. These facets of teaching do not occur in isolation. A good teacher is involved in all of them, to some degree, at all times. In this chapter attention is given to how you may help future teachers in the study of learners.

OBJECTIVES IN HELPING STUDENTS UNDERSTAND LEARNERS

Understanding learners whom you teach is basic to effective guidance of their activities; hence helping prospective teachers increase their knowledge of children and youth and their skills in studying them is a central purpose of all their professional education. What should teacher educators aim to do in helping students acquire a growing understanding of learners?

1. *Help students acquire basic information regarding human development and learning.*

This objective includes familiarity with an understanding of accumulating knowledge regarding general characteristics of development, factors affecting development, and principles resulting from accumulated research findings: that each individual has his own growth pattern, that all aspects of growth are interrelated, and that behavior is caused. Such basic information should include also results of research and experimentation on the learning process: that the whole human being participates in the learning process, that learning is facilitated when the learner is active in planning, carrying out, and evaluating experience, and that experiences which have meaning in the everyday living of boys and girls have higher learning potential.

2. *Help students develop skill in studying children and youth and in gathering and recording data on individuals and groups.*

In their preservice teacher education future teachers should become familiar with the range of techniques available for studying children and youth, such as making observations, conducting parent interviews, holding pupil conferences, using records, participating in clinics, working with specialists, using informal written and oral instruments, and making home visits. Emphasis should be placed on actual practice in using such instruments and techniques in the study of real children and youth in many situations to insure that students will acquire independence and skill in gathering evidence on individuals and groups with whom they

will work. Basic information about growth and development which the student already has contributes to this skill. Similarly, experiences designed to help students develop skill in studying pupils adds to the knowledge they accumulate.

3. *Help students utilize data concerning individuals and groups in planning school experiences with and for them.*

This objective includes developing clear concepts of the role of the teacher as a guide. Continuous emphasis must be placed on the relationship between data gathered and the guidance of boys and girls in school experiences. It is exceedingly important that prospective teachers develop strong convictions regarding the basic purpose of child study—designing a curriculum that from day to day meets the needs, interests, and abilities of boys and girls in dealing with their problems of living and that is directed toward achieving ultimate objectives in the educational program of a society such as ours.

4. *Help students increase their self-understanding.*

This objective relates to the application of general principles in human growth and development to the self. Each student should be encouraged to give attention to studying his own background, to analyzing his own needs, interests, and abilities, to examining his behavior and seeking to understand why he feels and behaves as he does. When need arises, special services should be made available to assist students in this process of self-understanding.

PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES AND STUDENTS' UNDERSTANDING OF LEARNERS

The importance of the foregoing purposes has long been recognized in preservice teacher education. Guiding students in developing understanding of boys and girls is one of the central purposes in programs of professional laboratory experiences. Direct experiences designed to help the student grow in his understanding of children and youth in a social setting are now accepted as an integral part of the four- or five-year preservice program. It might be assumed, therefore, that when students undertake their

student teaching assignments, they already have had many contacts in a variety of situations with learners of varying age levels, of differing socio-economic backgrounds, and of a wide range of intellectual ability. But you will need to be on the alert not to rely too heavily on their previous experiences. The best program of professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching does no more than provide a beginning of a growing understanding of learners. This beginning must be recognized for what it is—a background on which the student teacher builds deepening and widening insight into behavior. In fact, the good teacher in service is always gaining new insights; growth in understanding human development and learning never stops.

Further, in order that student teaching may make its full contribution to the student's growing understanding of learners, it is well to examine some of the weaknesses of professional laboratory experiences designed for the purpose of bringing teachers-to-be into contact with children and youth.

Laboratory Experiences Should Not Be Limited to an Individual Case Study

Some programs of professional laboratory experiences are limited in the nature and extent of opportunities for studying children and youth. In general, the prospective teacher has an opportunity to make an individual case study of a selected pupil under the guidance of one or more staff members who know the child or youth and the college student. Question might be raised as to the desirability of having beginning students in teacher education engage in this particular activity since a true case study is designed chiefly for use by specialists in clinical situations. There may be some students who as sophomores or juniors in college are ready to use a case study procedure, but it is doubtful that many students are gifted to this degree. The dangers of the inexperienced student's gathering psychological information and drawing conclusions on the basis of inadequate data should be avoided. This is not to say that beginning students should not have many opportunities to study individual pupils. It is to emphasize that the case study procedure, as generally used in education, is not the best procedure for this purpose. Rather, each student should be guided in engaging in a variety of individual child studies, the nature of

which is determined by the student's ability and insight and not by a standard requirement that every sophomore produce a detailed case study.

Programs of professional laboratory experiences are further limited in the kind of observation and participation opportunities provided the student. Too often observation of groups or individuals is superficial, with inadequate time spent by the student and with inadequate guidance by staff people. Frequently, also, observations are limited, owing to the impossibility of providing breadth of contact for the student. For example, many staff people feel that a beginning student should not be permitted to take part in parent conferences or in making home visits. Limitations such as these make it virtually impossible to carry out a real case study, and they also limit other kinds of laboratory experiences.

Study of Individuals Should Not Be Emphasized to the Exclusion of Study of Group Behavior

A second weakness of present programs of child study as a part of the professional sequence is overemphasis upon study of individual learners to the almost complete exclusion of study of groups of pupils, group dynamics, and group behavior. This is unfortunate at a time when the improvement of interpersonal relationships and group action are among the dominant concerns of the entire educational program.

Data about Children and Youth Need to Be Related to School Experiences

Perhaps the most critical weakness of present programs of study of children and youth is the failure to relate data gathered about individuals and groups to the planning of school experiences. The ultimate purpose in child study is to plan with learners school experiences which better meet their needs. When this purpose is denied, one might well ask, "Why study pupils?" Throughout the four- or five-year program, as students are provided opportunity to study learners, such study should be related to the school experiences of those learners. Consistent and continuous emphasis must be placed on guiding the student to see the real purpose for

understanding the persons with whom he works. That child study should be related to curriculum improvement was in the thinking of an insightful student in a sociology class who participated with the staff of a laboratory school in a community survey. After voluminous data had been gathered and recommendations arrived at, the sophomore student asked a teacher, "But, why are these children studying Indians when our survey showed that such a large percentage of them come from homes where they have almost no parental care, inadequate diets, and no hot water?"

Study of Children and Youth Should Lead to the Student Teacher's Understanding of Self

Since self-understanding is central to understanding others, it is lamentable that so few students are guided in gaining insight into their own behavior as a result of study of others of any age level. Some students will make comparisons, draw conclusions, and engage in self-analysis directly or indirectly as they are having experiences in the study of learners. Without careful guidance this can be harmful, as it was in the case of a junior student who convinced himself he was exactly like the case explored in the film "A Feeling of Hostility" and thereafter withdrew to the extent that eventually he needed psychiatric help himself. Other students will fail to make any attempt to understand themselves in spite of all their concentrated study to understand others. It would seem important that students be guided in increasing their insight into their own behavior as a part of developing understanding of others.

In spite of these possible weaknesses in professional laboratory experiences designed to help the student gain understanding of boys and girls, such experiences can make an immeasurable contribution to the preparation of good teachers. As a student engages in well-planned and well-guided laboratory experiences in the study of individuals and groups, he cannot help but accumulate many important concepts of behavior and its internal and external causes. Weaknesses in programs are pointed out only for the purpose of suggesting points of caution for you in your work with student teachers.

SOME PRINCIPLES OF SPECIAL SIGNIFICANCE IN HELPING STUDENTS UNDERSTAND LEARNERS THROUGH STUDENT TEACHING

As indicated many times in the preceding pages, student teaching is one of the most significant of the professional laboratory experiences. Here the student is provided an opportunity to integrate his previous learnings, which have been gained in study of parts of the total function of teachers, to make application in a concrete situation of many of the principles he has learned, to appraise his ability in guiding learners, and to gain fresh insight into the interrelationships of all aspects of the teaching-learning process. Because student teaching provides this opportunity for integration and pragmatic testing of concepts gained throughout the previous college program, it makes a unique contribution to the student's growing understanding of boys and girls in a particular school-community setting. While guiding the experiences of the student teacher, you will want to recognize the special contribution being made to his preparation for skillful study of learners.

The principles governing professional laboratory experiences, discussed in Chapter 3, are important in student teaching and certain of them need special consideration as you plan ways of helping the student increase his understanding of children and youth. The following suggestions grow out of the application of three of these principles.

1. *Student teachers are unique individuals and differ widely in their readiness for certain types of activities.*

As in working with children of any age level, so with student teachers, you should start with the student where he is. It must not be assumed that because the student has had previous contact with children and youth he is well along the road to complete understanding of them. One of your first tasks is to study with the student his individual readiness, his stage of development in understanding learners. What does he seem to know about learners? What use does he make of this knowledge? In what areas of understanding is he lacking as he seeks to interpret learning situations and to make decisions about guiding learning? Answers to

questions such as these are basic to good planning with the student in the selection of particular activities during his student teaching.

2. *Student teachers, too, learn by experience.*

The experience a student has as you try to understand him and plan with him to meet his particular needs is one of his most direct and effective experiences. Instances are far too frequent where student teachers are denied individual attention, rigid requirements are set for all, little attempt is made to understand individual needs, interests, and abilities, while at the same time student teachers are required to make careful and detailed studies of learners with whom they work. If you are sincerely concerned about helping prospective teachers to become convinced of the importance of studying children and youth and to gain skill in gathering and using data about individuals and groups of learners, then it is imperative that you provide a good example in this respect. This means, for example . . .

- Using every available resource for gathering pertinent data about the student teacher—records of all types, conferences with many people, observations of the student in a great variety of personal-social as well as professional situations, formal and informal instruments.
- Planning particular experiences with the student on the basis of what you learn about him.
- Helping the student appraise himself in a situation, define individual purposes, and see the direct relationship between his purposes and the activities in which he engages.
- Seeking causes of behavior in the student teacher, recognizing the full scope of the interaction of the whole organism with the whole environment.

3. *Student teachers need help in developing and using generalizations as guides to action.*

While some students will readily generalize from experience and make application of learnings to other similar situations, you cannot assume that all students have ability to generalize. In fact, one of your main concerns should be helping the student in the

generalizing process as he reflects on data about learners. This demands very careful and clear guidance of the student teacher through conferences and other procedures. Without help in formulating principles which can be guides to action in new situations, students are likely to copy patterns used in one situation with one group of pupils and attempt, many times with failure, to apply those patterns in other instances where they are inappropriate. (For discussion of this point, see Chapter 4, p. 59.)

The responsibility for helping students to grow in their understanding of learners is important and, at the same time, complex. There is no clear-cut plan of action that can be outlined and called good for all students in all situations. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to a consideration of some procedures and practices found to be effective in some programs. No attempt is made to present an exhaustive list of suggested activities. Rather the material is presented as illustrative of the kinds of experience you may want to plan with your student teacher. Included are suggestions for helping students to grow in their understanding of children and youth by: (1) using and contributing to pupils' cumulative records; (2) observing behavior; (3) making contacts with homes and families; (4) studying the community; (5) planning learning activities; (6) guiding learning activities; (7) viewing films; (8) evaluating pupil progress; and (9) reading.

CUMULATIVE RECORDS AS A SOURCE OF DATA ABOUT LEARNERS

It should be assumed that a school participating in a student teaching program maintains records of its school population. These records should be cumulative, including all information of value in understanding each pupil and in planning with him for his learning activities. They should be located conveniently for use by all persons guiding a learner. They should be dynamic in nature, changing continuously to include current, alive material. They should be contributed to by all those persons who work with the pupil: teachers, administrators, parents, specialists, and the pupil himself. (For a more complete discussion of pupil cumulative records, see Chapter 11, pp. 293–299.)

Help Your Students to Study Learners through Cumulative Records

Very early in his program the student teacher should become acquainted with available records of pupils. As a cooperating teacher, you may introduce him to these records in a variety of ways. Ideally, a student teacher is provided an opportunity to become acquainted with the pupils with whom he will work, through cumulative records, prior to beginning his student teaching. Typically, however, students are shown where records are kept and are asked to study them during the first days of student teaching, perhaps bringing for conference with the cooperating teacher items from the records which are not clearly understood or which appear to be quite significant. While a student teacher may profit much from this kind of introduction to records, it is doubtful that it is the most fruitful way to help him feel the value of such records and be sensitive to use of material contained in them. It is always better to relate the activities of a student teacher to his particular purposes at a given time. This principle in operation provides some suggestions on how to help students use cumulative records.

As you begin sharing with the student teacher your planning for work with a group or an individual, encourage a consideration of why you are making certain plans. On the first occasion possible, *use a single cumulative record in sharing with the student the why behind your planning.* The following excerpt from a conference illustrates how this can be done:

Cooperating teacher: Norman and Ronnie have interested me lately. I have observed that Ronnie imitates Norman in everything. I have a feeling this is not too good for Ronnie. Sometimes it is all right, but in this case I think we'd better plan to have Ronnie separated from Norman for a while.

Student: Why do you suppose Ronnie wants to copy Norman's behavior? He seems smart enough to be himself, doesn't he?

Cooperating teacher: Let's see if there is anything we can learn about Ronnie from his record.

Together they looked at Ronnie's cumulative record. Among other things, they found that Ronnie was the youngest of five children

in a family; that the child next to him was five years his senior; that his mother had complained numerous times that Ronnie was not up to par with the other children; and that his score on a recent mental test was 126.

Student: Well, he does have the ability to establish himself in his own right, doesn't he?

Cooperating teacher: Yes. I wonder how he feels about his older brothers and sister? I wonder how he feels about his mother pushing him all the time and wanting him to be like the others? Let's see if we can watch Ronnie closely and try to discover how he feels about these things.

During very early contacts with the pupil group, stimulate the student to raise questions regarding behavior he observes in certain pupils. Encourage his expressed interest in particular learners. *Use the student teacher's questions and his interests as a basis for exploring records for data which will clarify behavior.* For example, Miss Donahue, the homeroom teacher in the ninth grade, had this experience with a student teacher:

Student: You know, I'm so interested in Jean. I've been here only two days and Jean has played up to me something terrific.

Miss Donahue: How has she done it? What has she done?

Student: Well, for instance. This morning Jean had quite a talk with me before school started. I was amused, for she told me that Henry had asked her to the opening Friday night dance. You know very well that he didn't, for he is taking Patty and he wouldn't look at Jean. Later I saw Jean talking to Patty and apparently telling her the same thing, for Patty was furious. Wonder why she tells such fabrications?

Miss Donahue: Why don't you make a special point of watching Jean to see if you can discover why she does and help her overcome her difficulty? I'd suggest that you take a good look at her record here in the file. I think you'll find some help there as a beginning point.

It is a quite common procedure to have student teachers make some written observations throughout their work with a group. If these *written observations* are well planned and guided, they, too, *serve as excellent openings for helping the student use cumulative records effectively.* Here are some excerpts from written observations made by student teachers early in their work. Note how they could easily lead to use of records.

Observation	Questions I'd Like to Discuss
I'm much impressed with how much children can learn in cooking class—and how enthusiastic most of them are about it. It's something very real and familiar to them. I saw Dorothy excel, lead, and glow in the cooking center, whereas she takes a back seat in most other activities. The experience seems to be especially therapeutic for her.	Why is this so? Is Dorothy skilled in this area because she has to help at home? Is there any way to help her get the same value from some of the other activities?
I got interested in David today and so watched him closely. For minutes or more, this is what he did: Finished up his paper and then stopped to stare. Left the paper on his desk, got a notebook out and left it on the desk. Watched the boy next to him when he opened the windows. After the boy sat down, David continued to look out of the window as he rocked back and forth in his chair. When the class was finished, the problems were corrected. David failed to glance up once to see if his were right. When the last answer was given, David marked his paper 100 and entered his score in his notebook.	Is David dishonest? What makes him put down 100 without knowing that his work was right? He seems so nervous and disinterested. He can't pay attention any length of time at all. Were his problems really right?
The students who took an active part in the discussion today were: Arthur, David, Wilbur, Gordon, Candy, Eddie, Gloria and Bill. Jane and Kerry made some contribution, which is unusual. Those who seemed not the least bit interested and offered no comment were: Bonnie, Ellen, Helen, Andy, Dick and Dina.	How could we get all the pupils to help in the discussion? Are the others not interested? Is the material too hard for them? Were they not prepared? Is Helen well physically?

The technique used above was to have beginning student teachers record some observation which had particular interest to them

and to raise questions which might form the basis of conference discussion.

Each of these suggested ways of using records is based on the principle that *students should be introduced to records through purposeful activities.* This is best done through a gradual approach, using those situations in which data from records can be effective in helping to solve any real problems of understanding learners. Once the student has been introduced to the records, he will need continuous guidance in using them throughout his student teaching. If this guidance is forthcoming, soon he will automatically go to records for help when he needs it in his own planning or in meeting situations involving individual pupils.

Encourage Students to Contribute to Cumulative Records

It is not enough for a student teacher to use records already available in a teaching situation. He needs also to have much experience in contributing to these records directly and in securing and selecting entries from indirect sources. A few examples of ways some student teachers shared in writing cumulative records will suggest how you may help your student make worthwhile contributions which will also add to his understanding of children and youth.

> A student teacher approached Mr. Kirk with this statement. "I've been keeping a record of the kind of comments Bill makes in the lab. They are very significant."
>
> Mr. Kirk and the student examined the record of Bill's comments and Mr. Kirk asked the student teacher if he thought any hypothesis might be drawn from his record of Bill's comments. Together they made some tentative generalizations and decided to try to check them in future observations. Meanwhile, Mr. Kirk and the student placed the material in Bill's cumulative record.

> The cooperating teacher was concerned about the value judgments made by a student teacher on the attitude of Harold toward the Family Living class. The student seemed to be drawing conclusions without adequate information. It was suggested that the student keep some anecdotes on Harold—illustrations of his behavior that would reveal his attitude. Some time later, the student presented such a complete and valuable record of Harold's behavior that the

cooperating teacher suggested immediately that this information should become a part of Harold's permanent record.

"Janet has never done a piece of work like this," the student reported.

"What do you think is so outstanding about it?"

"For one thing, Janet really struck something here in which she was interested. I guess that is why she really finished this job; she almost never finishes anything. And, I've never seen her produce as much real research. Usually she dillydallies around and gets little done. She is so proud of this piece of work."

"Do you suppose this might indicate an interest Janet has that it would be well for other people working with her to know about?" the cooperating teacher asked.

The student thought perhaps it was and that he could work better with Janet now that he had made the discovery. "I think this paper of Janet's should go into her file, so that others can have an idea of what she is capable of doing when she is interested."

"You know, I have a feeling that the mental test score in John's folder is not accurate."

The cooperating teacher was rather surprised. "Why, what makes you say that?"

"Well, John just can't read. That group test used for those scores isn't a good test for John. I think we ought to have the school psychologist give him an individual test."

This suggestion by the student teacher was carried out and a new report presenting a very different picture of John's mental capacity was entered in his record.

One morning, a student teacher related this story to a cooperating teacher. "Last night I took Nancy to the movie and we went to get a soda afterwards. It was well after eleven o'clock and who should be sitting in the corner of a booth in the drugstore but Ted. I talked to him as we were leaving and he said he was waiting for his mother to come home, that he couldn't get into the house. He didn't know where his mother was. Said he was always up waiting for her. I wonder if this is why he seems to be tired and sleepy all the time?"

"We probably should try to find out how Ted spends his evenings and how much sleep he is getting. Why don't you make a note of that contact with him and put it in his record so we will be sure to follow up on it?"

The above illustrations show that student teachers made these kinds of contributions to cumulative records: (1) a record of one

pupil's comments during a laboratory class, with some hypotheses to be checked in later observations; (2) a series of anecdotal reports revealing an attitude of a pupil; (3) a project of a pupil completed with the guidance of the student teacher; (4) an individual test score; and (5) a single anecdote as a possible explanation of at least one cause for a pupil's behavior. These are only five of many ways a student teacher might be guided in making valuable contributions to cumulative records in any school situation.

As in the case of introducing student teachers to records already available, helping students to make contributions to records is a gradual process and should always be related to the ongoing activities in the school program. When a student has discovered how valuable data from cumulative records can be in his attempt to understand learners, when he has had the thrill of discovering pertinent information about pupils and sharing it with his colleagues through records, he has gained the most important concept regarding cumulative records—they are valuable only to the degree that they are useful in providing better opportunities for learning. This is your goal in guiding a student in using and contributing to cumulative records. This is the conviction you want him to arrive at through his own experience.

OBSERVATION AS A WAY OF DEEPENING INSIGHTS INTO BEHAVIOR AND ITS CAUSES

Students may engage in planned observation of boys and girls for a variety of purposes and in a great many different ways at different times in their preparation.[1] In some college programs, student teachers are required to engage in much observation during the first two or three weeks of student teaching. Thereafter, it seems to be assumed that they do not need to observe boys and girls any longer, that they are now ready to assume responsibility for teaching them. This is a mistake. The truth is that no professional educator ever reaches the point in his work where he could

[1] Observation as a procedure to be used in student teaching and other parts of the teacher education program is discussed in Chapter 13. The treatment here is limited to observation for the purpose of gaining understanding of boys and girls.

not profit from observation. In fact, observation becomes more and more meaningful as a student acquires more background for understanding what he sees. Therefore, as a procedure for helping students increase their insights into behavior and its causes, observation of pupil behavior should take on added importance as the weeks of student teaching go by.

A few general ideas regarding the use of observation in the study of behavior by student teachers are in order. Like all other activities in student teaching, observation should be planned on the basis of particular purposes and needs of the individual student. Care should be taken to see to it that a student has a variety of types of observation experiences: observing an individual in one situation several times, observing groups in a variety of situations, or observing for data on specific problems or the implementation of principles. Your guidance in the situation is the key to the student's reaping benefits from observations. Students need help in actually learning to see what is going on. They need much help in interpreting what they see. They need help in making use of what they see as they work with learners.

Provide Opportunities for Students to Observe Pupils in a Variety of Situations

Student teachers should be provided ample opportunity to observe individuals and groups in a variety of situations. While much of this observation will be done in your classroom, where the student is engaged for the major portion of his work, he should also have opportunities to observe pupils of other age levels, particularly the age levels above and below the one with which his student teaching is being done. In addition, the secondary school student teacher should spend some time observing behavior of youth in different departments of the school.

Observations in classroom situations should be well planned to meet real purposes of the student. A few of the most common purposes for which students engage in observation of learners in a classroom situation are: (1) to discover common characteristics of pupils of a given age level; (2) to note differences apparent among learners of the same age level; (3) to observe the behavior

of a given child or youth under the guidance of different teachers and in different activities; (4) to observe interpersonal relations among a group of pupils; and (5) to observe environmental factors, both human and physical, which influence behavior of an individual or group.

Help Your Student to Build Skill in Recording Observed Behavior

Particular plans made with the student for recording his observations of children and youth will vary with the individual student and the situation, as well as with the purpose of observation. One thing is certain: there is no set pattern for recording observations which is good at all times, for all students, and for all purposes. At times, it may be profitable for a student to be given a guide for gathering and recording data through observations. If guides are used, they should allow for adequate flexibility to stimulate the creative ability of the student and to encourage his initiative in securing data. Two such guides are reproduced here for illustration. The first is taken from a list of suggestions for individual child study included in a handbook for supervisors of student teachers. Following a series of general suggestions for getting started in a detailed study of one pupil, this list is given.

SOME OF THE TYPES OF INFORMATION YOU WILL PROBABLY NEED ARE:

1. What is he like right now? Looks, clothing, mannerisms, habits, ways of talking, difficulties in work, assets, etc.
2. How much and in which ways has he matured? Stage of mental, physical, emotional, and educational maturity. Energy, health, growth spurts, etc.
3. How does he compare with others in the group? Is he a leader or a follower? Do his actions deviate from group standards, and if so how much?
4. Is he part of the gang? Is he ignored, rejected, or accepted by the group? Are his standards their standards? Who are the important persons in the group, and what are their relations to him? How does he fit in with the activities of the group?
5. What are the sociological pressures at work on him? What is the social status of . . . his family? What are the social standards demanded of him, at home, in school, and in the community? Manners? Language?

6. What are his family relationships? Age . . . of parents. Number of brothers and sisters older and younger. Parent-child relationships. Kind of home life. What do parents expect of child?
7. How fast has he developed? What is the past history of his development? What habits has he engrained? What was he like a few years ago?
8. How is he treated now and how has he been treated? How has he been treated by parents, other adults, teachers, etc.?
9. What are his past experiences? What unusual events have taken place in his life? Illness, family trouble, trips, dangers, delinquency, honors, etc.?
10. How does he react to tough situations? When he meets a tough problem does he meet it with headlong attack, emotional strain, fantasy, rationalization, seclusion, etc.? What is his attitude toward body, others, work, possessions, society, God? What are his character traits, behavior habits?
11. What is his state of health? Physical defects, major disturbances, permanent or temporary. Mental and emotional health.
12. What has he learned? . . . What does he know? How does he rank in class? What are his educational difficulties? What do tests show about him?
13. What is he trying to do now? What kind of activities does he now engage in from necessity or choice? How much strain is he under? How big is his load? [2]

Obviously, gathering data to find answers to these questions entails much more than classroom observation. However, this list provides a student attempting a detailed study of one child or youth with both a definite purpose and guidance in what to look for as he observes that pupil in a variety of situations. If such a guide is developed cooperatively with students and is used with adequate counseling, it may: (1) stimulate the student to use his initiative in gathering data; (2) encourage the use of a great many different techniques; (3) permit individuals to record in ways best suited to them and the material collected; (4) help the student to determine what to look for as he observes behavior; and (5) emphasize the interaction of the individual being observed with his environment, the people and things around him.

The second form illustrates a guidesheet for observation of group behavior.

[2] Little, Harry A., *Handbook for Supervisors of Student Teaching*, pp. 53–55. Milledgeville, Ga.: Georgia State College for Women, 1947.

Study of a Group

1. Record your observations daily.
2. Note special interest in certain kinds of intergroup and person-to-person relations, e.g., Negro-white, dull-bright, immigrant-native born, Jew-Gentile, rural-urban, etc.
3. Observe the participation of class members: e.g., Who takes part in things? Who is popular? Unpopular?
4. Note isolates, cliques, and factions within the group.
5. Indicate how these factions behave.
6. Keep a daily record of the following:
   Some significant things that happened: some incident, pupil remark, adult action; and what the class or pupil did. Be concrete. Tell why this incident was significant, what it meant to you, and what you did, what happened, etc.
7. At the close of the week, do the following:
   a. Write your interpretation of the class for a week. Focus your thought especially on minority groups. Is the group as a whole friendly or unfriendly toward them? Who are the real leaders? Are there isolates, small cliques, factions? What kind of atmosphere is it for pupils to live, and learn, and grow in?
   b. Record the new ideas which you have of the class. What strong feelings have you had? What new skills in group management have you practiced? What abilities in guiding pupils toward a square deal for all do you now possess? [3]

The outstanding feature of this form is that it calls for observation of group behavior. As indicated earlier in this chapter, one of the major weaknesses in child study programs as a part of student teaching is the overemphasis upon study of individuals and relative lack of attention to study of group behavior. With suggestions of this form as a background, you may wish to help your student to use a variety of techniques in the study of groups of pupils in your classroom. Experience with such techniques is sorely needed by prospective teachers.

When guides for observation are used, students need help in avoiding the collection of trivial information, directing too much of their total time to one task and becoming oblivious to other important aspects of understanding pupils, assuming too much in the interpretation of data, and producing the traditionally

[3] *Handbook for Student Teachers,* p. 13. Trenton, N.J.: New Jersey State Teachers College.

expected amount of "stuff." The use of forms for all observation can become a mechanical routine for student teachers. Having a clear purpose for observing is an important safeguard against such pitfalls.

Careful guidance is needed also where written suggestions are not used. Students need help in learning what to record and how to record it. One procedure is to have students record anecdotes of either individual or group behavior observed. For example, one student in her observation of a group of five-year-olds recorded the following:

> I have noticed how slow one boy in the class is. His name is Dickie. He doesn't know how to button his coat. It takes him at least half an hour to drink his milk and eat his crackers. I talked with Miss White about him and she says his mother even took the buckle off his coat so it won't be so difficult to do. He seems to be very tired and sleepy in class.

Exactly one month later, this same student recorded:

> I have noticed quite a change in Dickie. He is now able to button his coat and his mother has put the buckle back on. He is very happy about being able to button his coat. He told me the first thing. He is taking more interest in class.

It is apparent that this student was becoming sensitive to understanding individual children through observation of evidences of growth. The cooperating teacher was on the alert to help her make intelligent interpretations of what she observed, and understand the factors contributing to change in behavior. Some students will find it helpful to compare their own anecdotes with those you have made of the same situation.

In another situation, a student teacher was interested in learning more about Wally. The student summarized a record made during one of his first observations of Wally in a classroom situation as follows:

WALLY 16 YEARS OLD ENGLISH CLASS—ONE HOUR

1. Didn't enter into classroom activity.
2. Last one to remove notebook from desk.
3. Wrote very poorly and seemed to have to see each letter in order to copy from the board.
4. Handled pencil clumsily.
5. Appeared bored with classroom activities.
6. Personal appearance: Dressed shabbily; clothes dirty; tall and thin; does not appear to be in very good health.

Observing Wally in the classroom stimulated this student to secure more information about him, which he did immediately. He gathered these facts:

> Family background: Mother married and divorced when carrying Wally. Wally born after mother remarried, but mother had Wally given the name of her new husband. Wally's mother and stepfather are now separated. He has one younger brother and sister, none older. He lives with his aunt and mother in an apartment in a poor district in town.

It may be assumed that the cooperating teacher guided the student in locating this information and that further observation of Wally would be planned.

Encouraging student teachers to record observed behavior in ways suitable to their individuality has many merits. Having them keep a professional diary during student teaching is one of the ways used in some programs. In one student's professional diary for one week, the following entries appeared:

> David uses his ingenuity in games to make up for his lack of physical skill. He waited until there were only two of them left in "Red Rover" and then ran around the other side when the remaining person began to run. In ball games he delights in being accurate in the rules and regulations but makes himself last in order to avoid actual activity.
>
> Candy is definitely a leader. All the girls copied her motions to the songs in music class and she seemed to be directing the boys, too. She knew the words to all the songs and learned the new ones easily. She has been to camp. Told me she wanted to be a singer or a dancer so she wouldn't get fat.
>
> Penny does not want to go to the gym, but the two times I have observed her she has quietly joined the group toward the end of the period. Perhaps she isn't used to such rough and tumble play but would really like to join in.

The above entries appeared among many other comments having to do with group behavior, individual behavior, methodology of instruction, and so on. Beside each of these particular entries the cooperating teacher had made a note: "Let's discuss this." This procedure makes an excellent point of departure for guiding a student in his developing understanding of learners.

Another student teacher was discovering general characteristics of an age group as she observed the work in one classroom. She recorded:

> The children did an interesting thing. They criticized a mural they did as a backdrop for their puppet show. Being dissatisfied, they were very anxious to improve it. I have been interested in seeing what standards these children hold for their own work. Also, how a few children who do not hold the same standards really acquire those of other children with higher standards.

These comments recorded by the student became the center of a conference during which the student and cooperating teacher discussed how children arrived at standards and where they got their standards at this particular age level. Conferences centered on such specifics are usually more effective (see Chap. 14).

Encourage Your Student Teacher to Keep a Diary of His Observations

Having students keep a continuous professional diary, with records of their observations as one important part of it, has advantages to both the student and you. For example, such a diary (or professional log) may reveal (1) what the student actually sees; (2) what he views as important enough to record; (3) what specific progress he is making in what he sees and where he places emphasis; (4) how he relates information from several sources to his observations; (5) what kinds of interpretations he is likely to make and how his analysis of data improves; (6) what kinds of hunches he has; and (7) how he plans to test his ideas in practice. Such factors as the seven just listed serve as a basis for diagnosing the needs of the student and planning next steps in his study of learners.

How a continuous professional log may provide information on the student's growing understanding of learners is illustrated in the following four excerpts from one student's diary. These excerpts are selected because they show the student's desire to understand one child and reveal some of the student's thinking, behavior, and skills. The left-hand column includes the entries from the student's diary. In the right-hand column your attention is directed to the factors a cooperating teacher might note as a basis for discovering the student's progress in understanding learners and planning experiences with the student to meet his specific needs.

Excerpts from Student Teacher's Professional Diary	Factors of Concern to Cooperating Teacher in Planning with Student
December 4	
James is a tall, very aggressive boy. (I've just been reading *Psychotherapy in Child Guidance.*) He seems to be a typical primary behavior disorder who has known very little love and who therefore fights against the world. His way of becoming acquainted with me at first was to knock me in the back. When I paid no attention to that, he let me know his name. Miss Herold said he was like a savage animal last year and has been going to the mental hygiene clinic. Always he is a disrupting figure in the class and takes delight in doing the opposite of what he is supposed to. Seems to have taken quite a crush on me. However, his way of expressing this is by taking everything that is mine, doing all he can to annoy me, doing anything to get my attention. As much as is humanly possible, I shall try to ignore him when he does all these attention-getting things. I'll try to pay attention to him when I think I can help him. A revealing behavior pattern is that when he takes something from me and I try to get it back, he keeps saying, "No, no, I don't trust you. You'll trick me if I give it to you."	Student teacher is interested in the behavior of a particular boy. Notes some outside reading which has a bearing on understanding the boy. Records specific incidents which may reveal causes of behavior. Discusses the boy with the teacher he had last year, hoping to gain some background information. Notes a hunch on one factor contributing to his behavior. Makes a tentative plan for dealing with the boy.
December 10	
I know why James behaves as he does, but it is so hard to deal with him. I think he really likes me a lot and wants my attention. To get it, he resorts to every conceivable thing . . . Here's my plan for working with James. I	Expresses feeling that he understands causes of James' behavior but doesn't know how to deal with it. Reiterates plan for working with the child.

Excerpts from Student Teacher's Professional Diary	Factors of Concern to Cooperating Teacher in Planning with Student
will praise him when he does something good. I'll give him as much attention as possible. When he is troublesome, I'll try to ignore him. For instance, today when I was reading a story, James kept putting his hand over the page. I ignored it and guessed what was there and kept on reading.	Records another incident to use as a basis for interpreting behavior.
The children kept saying that James is a bad boy. I kept saying that he isn't really bad, he just likes to be active.	Notes a specific anecdote showing one aspect of his plan in action.
After school Miss Hughes and I discussed James. She suggested that I needed to be very firm with him. I tried to talk about how we might have James work out his aggressive behavior and have him feel that he was respected and liked.	Records discussion with the cooperating teacher, who makes suggestion for working with the boy. Student teacher seems to reveal some disagreement with the suggestion.
December 15	
James has been a changed boy since yesterday. I was very firm with him several times and told him to sit down. Whether it was my firmness or my technique of ignoring him most of the time and praising his good behavior, I don't know. Today he volunteered answers in class and worked well with a small group.	Student notes change in James' behavior, giving specific examples. Records a testing of the cooperating teacher's suggestion of firmness but is not sure if this caused the change in behavior or if other factors contributed as much to change.
December 17	
James knew what a good job was and this is why he was so dissatisfied with his product. He seems to have perfectionist leanings . . .	Student has another hunch on an aspect of James' problem.
The other boys came to me and said that James told them he liked me. My analysis that he did must have been correct . . .	Records evidence that earlier hunch was accurate.
This time I am going to hold consistently to	Reiterates plan for action with James.

my policy of ignoring bad and praising good behavior, paying as much attention to him as possible.	
If after several days of this, no improvement is noted, I will at least have tested my idea on how to deal with him.	Consciously sets up plan for testing idea in action.

The diary or log kept by your student teacher can help you to understand something of his thinking, the problems with which he needs help, and his readiness to deal with them.

Students also need opportunities to observe individuals and groups of boys and girls in school situations which are not strictly classroom. For example, it is well for a student to see the learners, with whom he works in chemistry, in other school experiences, such as assemblies, clubs, sports, parties, and dances. Much can be gained by informal observation of pupils of all age groups in the school corridors, during, before, and after school hours. Every student teacher should have chances to observe pupils in special situations within the school: clinics of various kinds, health centers, counseling and administrative offices.

HOME AND FAMILY CONTACTS AS A MEANS OF LEARNING TO UNDERSTAND PUPILS

"Mrs. Taylor, this is Miss Norris, who is working with us this year. You would be interested, Mrs. Taylor, in seeing some of the things Miss Norris is doing with the Math Club."

"Oh, I'm so glad to meet you, Miss Norris. Jack has been talking about you. He is all wrapped up in constructing these geometric forms for their exhibit on Math."

It is good to have this kind of interchange take place between a parent and a student teacher who are being introduced. Note the skill with which the cooperating teacher selected just the right thing to identify the student teacher in the parent's mind and the respect for the student expressed in the comments of both teacher and parent. Such an interchange forms a basis for the student to build relationships with the parent and for further contact. Quite the opposite kind of foundation is laid in the situation where the cooperating teacher said to the student teacher at 3:30 one afternoon: "Well, now, Miss James, you'd better go because Bill's

mother is coming in to talk to me and I don't believe you'd better be around. She might think you are trying to listen to what she is saying. You know how it is—some parents are peculiar."

One of your very important responsibilities is to help students understand pupils better through contacts with home and family. It is unfortunate that so many cooperating teachers shy away from sharing with students their contacts with parents and homes. Of course, not all contacts lend themselves to sharing with even one additional person. There may be times when it is unwise to have a student join a conference with a parent or to accompany you on a home visit. But these times ought to be limited, and there should be many times when it is good and profitable to have your student join in such contacts. Here are some suggestions you may find helpful in guiding your student teacher in making contacts with parents and home situations.

Unplanned Visits

When a parent makes an unplanned visit to your classroom or to your school, be sure your student teacher is introduced as a co-worker. If possible, provide a time for the student to talk with the parent, to show some piece of work or to explain some activity.

Planned Conferences

Plan with your student for parent conferences. Such planning might include items to be discussed, materials to be used, time and place of conference, and purposes to be achieved.

Have the student help in the preparation for the conference by gathering necessary evidence of pupil progress, by preparing the pupil's folder to be used in the conference, or by suggesting information needed from the parent. Help the student prepare for some specific participation in the conference if this is going to be possible.

Consider the student a professional colleague as you engage in the conference, bringing the student into the discussion wherever appropriate. Sometimes during conferences students can keep records which are valuable in later work with pupils.

Discuss and evaluate the conference with the student. Do cooperative recording of significant material gathered and of plans made as a result of the conference.

Visiting Days

If your school has special days on which parents are invited to visit school, plan with your student teacher the activities for those days. Invite the student to be a member of the professional group in the classroom, talking with parents during such visits.

Parent-Teacher Association Meetings, Room Mothers Meetings, Parent Council Meetings

Be sure your student knows how the parents of the school are organized for participation in the school program. Use every opportunity available for providing the student with chances to be with parents and to talk with them about their children and their school progress.

Special Occasions

Invite parents to the school for special occasions, such as holiday programs and parties, or activities planned specifically for parents, such as teas. Your student teacher should be a part of all planning, carrying out, and evaluating of these special occasions.

Home Visits

When it is at all possible, invite your student to accompany you as you visit in the homes of pupils. Such visits need to be planned with care, directed in purpose, and executed in high professional spirit. Student teachers will gain much from a single opportunity to visit in a pupil's home.

While the above activities might be used for a number of purposes with student teachers, they are suggested here as ways of helping the student gain insight into behavior and its causes. This purpose should be kept uppermost in your mind and each activity planned in terms of specifics. Students will need help in recording what they gather from such home and family contacts and in interpreting data. They will need guidance in making generalizations from their experiences.

Some cooperating teachers have a tendency to deny student teachers any opportunity to engage in parent contacts or to make home visits on the grounds that students are not mature enough, or that they do not have the necessary diplomacy and skill, or that

they do not have the requisite professional ethics. One is inclined to ask these teachers, "When and how are future teachers expected to acquire the skill, diplomacy, maturity, and ethics?" It seems logical to assume that helping the student acquire ability in this role of the teacher is a responsibility which should be carried along with your many other activities. Students cannot engage in sound study of children and youth without contacts with home and family. The student's developing understanding of learners can never be "whole" unless he has these opportunities to learn about pupils through their parents and home situations.

COMMUNITY STUDY AND PARTICIPATION AS A WAY OF LEARNING MORE ABOUT BOYS AND GIRLS

While most student teachers will have had some previous experience in study of a community, they still need opportunity to study the particular school community in which student teaching is being done. Without the background of a community setting, with its unique characteristics, a student cannot do an adequate job of even beginning to understand those whom he teaches. Many aspects of behavior stem from community values, mores, economic status, occupations, industries, recreational opportunities, social and welfare agencies, churches, and neighborhood societies. Part of the information necessary for understanding a child or youth and for guiding him in learning activities is background knowledge of the small society of which he is a part. This background is equally important for understanding groups of learners and their group behavior.

You will want to help students to acquire this background of information. As always in teaching, it is necessary to take the student where he is and plan experiences for which he has readiness and purpose. In one school, a cooperating teacher said to a student teacher after school the first day, "I'm tired and I think I need some exercise before dinner. Would you like to go for a walk with me?" They walked around and through the district from which children in the classroom came, while the teacher pointed out places of interest—homes of certain children, gangs on corners, the Boys Club, the corner drugstore hangout. This made

a good introduction for the student, who later made many such trips into that school district for specific information.

In another college, a group of student teachers working with juniors in high school decided that, as one of their group activities, they would investigate where their pupils spent time after school and what they did in their leisure time. This decision was made because some of the student teachers felt that what they were doing with these boys and girls in school was not what was really needed. "Let's find out what they do when they do what they want to do," was the way some framed their inquiry. Other students were making studies of individuals and needed information about after-school hours. Still other students were concerned about the lack of physical energy some boys had and others wanted to see why certain boys were in gangs all the time and treated some of their peers with such disgust. Their plans soon developed into a survey of "Where Our Pupils Spend Their Time after School." A form to record what they discovered was developed by the student teacher group with the help of several cooperating teachers. A part of one record is included here for illustration:

Place: Owl Drug Store

Address: 12 Points

Nature of activities:

After school: High school kids sit in booths, smoke, joke, laugh, show off, drink cokes, eat sundaes, make dates.

At night: They meet here. Use the drug store as a meeting place of companions or dates. They loaf, kill time. Fellows bring dates in for a coke and to talk after a show. The place teems with activity after athletic events.

Amount and type of supervision: The proprietor is very strict—no loud talk, no singing, no scuffing, no feet on furniture, no drinking, not too much loafing.

Ages of children there: 13–20

Sex: Both

Socio-economic level: High middle class; great variety

As this group of students pooled the information each had gathered, they had a rather complete picture of what their pupils did

with their leisure time. This information was vital to understanding and guiding these high school youth. What was and what should this school do to help with the problem of sound use of leisure time?

It is important that students have a chance to discover other characteristics of a community which have direct bearing on the behavior of the young. For example, they need help in determining the values operating. One student teacher, after working in a community for some months, was surprised to have a parent say, "Of course, he took the books. Yes, he knew they didn't belong to him. How else was he going to get them? I told him to take them if he could." This student learned that working with a child from a social setting where completely different values operated from those accepted by the school was a perplexing problem to the best of teachers.

Even though students may have had some experience in participating in community agencies of various kinds prior to student teaching, they should have an opportunity to become a part of at least one agency which is closely related to the lives of pupils in a particular school. To illustrate: in a school located in a low economic district, student teachers gained much in understanding their pupils through meeting with the Social Welfare Council once a month and hearing the families of these children discussed, gaining insight into some of the background community problems, and learning how a welfare group tries to meet those problems.

OTHER ACTIVITIES THAT MAKE CONTRIBUTIONS TO STUDENTS' UNDERSTANDING OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

If a student is helped to reflect upon his experiences in your classroom, practically everything he sees and does will contribute in some way to his growing understanding of pupils. A few activities that seem to have special significance in helping the student increase his knowledge and skill in studying children and youth have been discussed in the preceding pages. There are others that you doubtless have already found useful. Three of these are mentioned here—using audio-visual materials, reading about children and youth, and planning, guiding, and evaluating experiences with learners.

Share Good Films and Recordings with Your Student Teacher

Sometimes those working with student teachers assume that students have seen all the worthwhile films on human growth and development during their classes prior to student teaching, or that when they have real boys and girls to observe and study, films are not useful. In general, both are poor assumptions for two reasons: (1) there are always new and good films being released and students need to be aware of them as a tool for studying pupils, and (2) films that have been viewed earlier take on added significance as the student matures in his professional insights. Therefore, you may want to view selected films with your student teachers, always with preparation and purpose.

Only recently have educators begun to realize the value of audio materials, recordings of various types, in the education of teachers. Use of a good recording of a case study or a clinical conference would furnish another means of helping your students develop understanding of behavior.

Suggest Reading about Children and Youth

While it is true that almost without exception students will have had a basic course in human growth and development in which they will have done much reading of findings and generalizations regarding human development, yet it is good practice to help your student teachers keep abreast of published materials. In this field materials are published in such numbers as to make it necessary never to stop reading about children and youth. In addition to the professional publications in journals and books, perhaps you can suggest to your students novels which deal with the causes and expressions of human behavior.

Planning, Guiding, and Evaluating Activities Contributes to Understanding Learners

One of the best ways to help a student learn about youngsters is through the teaching process itself. The process of planning, guiding, and evaluating school experiences based upon real needs

demands understanding of learners. This process also provides new insights into drives operating in learners. Each of these phases of the student teacher's work—planning for, guiding, and evaluating the learning experiences of boys and girls—is treated in a separate chapter in this book and therefore is not discussed here. (See Chapters 9, 10, 11.) At this point it is sufficient to indicate the great importance of these activities in contributing to the student's growing understanding of human beings and what makes them "tick."

9

GUIDING YOUR STUDENT TEACHER IN PLANNING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

WHAT children and youth learn depends upon the quality of their experiences. Quality, in turn, is largely determined by the guidance given by teachers and others working with learners. What forethought and vision are required of the teacher if he is to give guidance which leads to high quality experience? What is involved in being prepared to judge the value of proposals which pupils initiate, to offer suggestions of real worth which have meaning for the learners, and to help individuals and the group carry forward their activities to achieve desired goals? It is the purpose of this chapter to examine the nature of planning necessary to guiding learning experiences and to suggest how you can help your student teacher learn to engage in that kind of planning.

PLANNING AND ITS PURPOSE

A plan for teaching, like a plan for any other activity—a vacation trip or building a house—is a guide for action. It outlines proposals for achieving a desired objective. In effect, a plan for teaching is an outline of what the teacher envisions the teaching-learning situation to be. It is the teaching process in projection—

the goal sought, what probably will be done to reach it, and what is needed to take the indicated steps.

Its purpose may be likened to that served by a road map for a vacationing autoist. It is a "service tool" to help the teacher give careful guidance. Prepared in advance of teaching, it provides an opportunity to think through how best to work with and to help pupils achieve their goals. Because the teacher can consider a proposal away from the actual learning situation, planning provides for more complete implementation of educational principles the teacher holds. Testing a tentative plan against principles and making needed changes assures children and youth higher quality learning experiences and more adequate guidance.

This is not to suggest that careful planning before teaching eliminates "on-the-spot" changing of plans as teacher and learners work together. Quite the contrary. Such planning in advance aids in making intelligent changes in plans as work proceeds. Such planning should cause teachers to be more, rather than less, sensitive to the modifications made necessary by changing circumstances and the part played by pupils in their own learning. Freedom to deviate from a given path and to follow new leads is gained with understanding of the area in which work is to be done. Only with knowledge does the individual have that confidence which makes possible true freedom of action. In fact, activities repeatedly carried out as initially planned by the teacher are to be questioned quite as much as those never carried out. The former situation suggests teacher domination; the latter, lack of teacher ability to understand and envision the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils. The teaching plan, then, carefully thought through in advance but *flexibly used* is a "service tool" for you and your student teacher and provides a *guide for action* in working with pupils.

If a plan is thought of as a "service tool" of value to the individual teacher—and not something prepared for someone else, such as supervisor or principal—the kinds of plans needed will be determined by the way in which the particular teacher envisions and blocks his work. Some teachers, after an over-view of the term or year's work, like to make weekly and daily plans. Others find that the work does not fall easily into weekly periods and prefer to plan in terms of experience-units. Student teachers need

and want help in all kinds of planning. You can provide guidance in dealing effectively with this part of the teacher's work by sharing with your student the kinds of planning you do and why. In doing this, it is important that you help him to develop skills in planning that will be useful when he becomes a regular member of a teaching staff.

Discussed in the pages that follow are the three kinds of plans generally found most useful: (1) the over-view of the term or year, (2) the unit or block plan, and (3) the daily plan. They are considered first as they relate to work with children and youth, and then as they serve in working with colleagues and with parents.

OVER-VIEW PLANS OF THE TERM OR YEAR

The major reasons for making a brief outline of the work of the term or year are to identify the central goals and areas of study, to have them clearly in mind in planning experience-units so that a balanced program is provided, and to anticipate problems and events which require special advanced arrangements and materials. This type of plan is focused primarily on setting goals in such a way as to indicate major areas of study.

What you and your student teacher state as goals in preparing the over-view plan is contingent upon your educational points of view. Some teachers state goals in terms of topics and areas of content to be studied, while some indicate fundamental problems and the competencies required to deal with them. Others identify objectives in terms of specific knowledge, skills, habits, and attitudes. Still others express goals in terms of the needs, concerns, and interests of learners. As the fund of man's knowledge becomes greater and greater, some basis is needed to decide what of all that is known should be taught. Every teacher must ask himself the question asked by Spencer years ago, "What knowledge is of worth?"

Fundamental Problems and Situations of Life Suggest Long-Range Goals

Some teachers have found it educationally sound to answer this question first by stating the over-all goals for their work with chil-

dren or youth in terms of the fundamental situations and problems of living with which learners should become acquainted. They approach the problem by identifying the major life situations that have meaning for the pupils with whom they work, that have meaning in terms of their maturity. These situations and problems, which are part of everyday living in our society, define the skills and understandings pupils need to acquire if they are to cope effectively with the world of things, people, and relationships. Together, the basic life problems and the understandings and skills needed in the satisfactory handling of them provide the teacher a clear-cut statement of goals toward which he would have the experiences of his pupils lead.

Pupil Backgrounds and Environmental Factors Are Indicators of Interests and Needs

Which of these life situations are most important for this particular group of pupils—as individuals and as a group? Which are a part of their everyday experiences at home and in the school and larger community? Which do they seem to be meeting adequately? Which problems are of special interest or concern to them? Which are they being helped to meet through other educational agencies—the home, church, special welfare groups? Seeking answers to questions such as these, the teacher extends and refines his over-all goals. Study of his pupils provides an index of their present developmental level and suggests needs and probable interests. Such a pupil inventory should be added to and reconstructed as other characteristics manifest themselves during the work of the year. Study of the community points to environmental characteristics that create and promote interests and concerns.

Discussion of Illustrative Plans Is Useful to Student Teachers

If your student teacher begins work with you after the school year or term is started and your over-view plan has been made, help him to understand how you proceeded to prepare it. He will

see its usefulness and purpose as he uses it in working with you in planning a unit or block plan. The following over-view plans are illustrative of those developed by two teachers, one working in a self-contained classroom in an elementary school and the other in the field of the physical sciences in a high school program. Only a part of the plan is given in each instance.

EXCERPTS FROM AN OVER-VIEW PLAN FOR A FIFTH GRADE. The fifth grade teacher identified ways in which problems in major areas of living touched the lives of the children. She recognized that the youngsters would be aware of some of these situations and not of others. The notations in the long-range plan provided a map of areas of work which she planned to bring to the attention of the children at appropriate times and in meaningful ways. Excerpts from notations in three areas are reported here.

AREAS OF LIVING AND THEIR POSSIBLE MEANING

A. MAINTENANCE OF PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

Meeting food needs
Regulating ventilation and lighting
Adjusting activity to temperature conditions
Securing needed rest
Securing needed relaxation
Achieving status in group situations
Adjusting to personal strengths and weaknesses
Resolving conflict situations
Providing for disease control
Using safety measures

Negative community aspects

Some of the children live in borderline slum areas
Cold lunches at school
Few wholesome recreational facilities—little realization of need
. . . . . .

Positive aspects

Excellent dental clinic
PTA interested in developing hobby clubs
Region suited to camping
. . . . . .

B. ADJUSTMENT AND CONTROL OF THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Adjusting to weather conditions
Conserving and using natural resources
Controlling bacteria
Using appropriate methods of preserving materials

Negative community characteristics
Factories pollute streams. Community indifferent
Spring floods fill basements of stores and some homes
Traffic a major problem
Railroad crossing on street level
. . . . . .

Positive characteristics
Basically a city of wealth
Natural contour and ridges provide beauty
. . . . . .

C. ECONOMIC SECURITY
Managing money
Determining the quality of goods; fair price
Deciding where to buy
Using community provisions for welfare appropriately
Using systems of credit buying soundly

Negative factors
Some parents of children on relief (hat industry on decline)
Misuse of money—overbuying on payment plans
The way allowance money is used
. . . . . .

Positive factors
Special provision for children's banking at local banks
New Community Chest plan
Distribution center for farm supplies
. . . . . .

This teacher recognized that the areas were interrelated. The spring floods affected health quite as much as they required consideration of ways of controlling the physical environment. How the children would work in the various areas to be considered during the year would be determined as specific units or blocks of work were selected and developed. As one further aid in mapping over-all goals, this teacher's plan included special skill needs and some of the basic understandings and generalizations toward which work would be directed. The following shows a few of the notations in these areas.

SPECIAL SKILLS AND ABILITIES NEEDED

1. Improve rate and comprehension in reading
   (Dick, Harold, George, Mae)
2. Extend reading interests
   (George, Billy, Laura, Tony, Grace)
3. Increase skill in using multiplication facts
   (Mary Louise, Shelby, Gertrude, Sam, Frank, August)

4. Work on listening power (Carl)
5. . . . . .

CONCEPTS BASIC TO DEALING WITH PROBLEMS AND INTERESTS

1. A well-balanced diet is essential to the health of the individual.
2. Many communicable diseases are spread by water, milk, and food that has been contaminated by flies, sewage, and other sources of disease.
3. Carelessness in sanitation standards exposes others to infection.
4. . . . . .

A LONG-RANGE PLAN OF A HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER OF SCIENCE. Like the fifth grade teacher, the instructor in physical science, in making a long-range plan of the work he thought would be important for his particular high school group, studied the information at hand about the pupils and the high school community. Among other changes in the community was the new electric power plant that was rapidly modifying many aspects of living—new families moving in, new kinds of work available, new stores of all kinds. Scanning the daily newspaper for the past three weeks, noting the amount of material relating to the new power plant, and remembering the high interest of last year's pupils in the construction of the plant, this teacher decided to include in his tentative over-view plan of the course, an area of work which would capitalize on this contemporary change.

Having made this decision, he began a closer study of the pupils' records to determine what their specific needs and contributions might be in connection with the power plant and the accompanying changes and problems in the community. It will be noted that the plan, except for one objective which the teacher felt only a few pupils might be ready to achieve, does not itself show the youngsters or their community backgrounds, but they are implied in the selection of problems and the suggested depth of study. Nor does this instructor identify skills or understandings which he expects to develop through the year. For him a statement in the form of over-all goals was more useful.

EXCERPTS FROM YEAR'S PLAN IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE COURSE

AREA 3. Impact of power and technology in our community
Involvements and responsibilities for the problems raised by power

PERSONAL GROWTH OBJECTIVES: To help young people:

1. Acquire a sound background of technical knowledge (satisfy the desire to "know how it works").
2. Integrate the social and scientific aspects of a problem of modern civilization.
3. Establish a base for placing technology in a personal philosophic perspective (probably only for Carl, Bedford, Iva, Dick).

SOCIAL GROWTH OBJECTIVES: To help young citizens:

1. Clarify for themselves the role of energy in modern society.
2. Understand the basic phenomena of energy transformation.
3. Understand the cost (in resources) of energy consumption.
4. Understand the economic, political, and social implications of energy use.

BASIC SCIENCE PROBLEMS:

1. The nature of work (review of scientific meaning of work)
2. The Law of the Conservation of Energy (special emphasis on energy transformations)
3. Theoretical base of electric power (standard generator; production from unmined coal or unharnessed water to power ready to come off the bus bars of a modern generator)
4. Power and its relationship to resources (resource availability and use)
5. Machines that produce power (e.g., factors that have made for greater thermal efficiency, reduction of capital outlay, and greater reliability of operation)

RELATED SOCIAL PROBLEMS:

1. Effects on society of replacement of manpower by machine power—replacement vs. learning of new occupations
2. Interrelationships of power and politics (power a strategic industry)
3. Economics of the power industry (how rates are determined)
4. Public and private ownership of power plants
5. Power and its relationship to national strength and national defense

AREA 4. What can the physical sciences show about the use of resources—how should our resources be used?

. . . . . .

Whatever form of plan the individual teacher finds most workable, through long-range or over-view planning the teacher has as guides (1) some knowledge of his pupils and their environment and (2) the basic problems, understandings, and skills to which he would lead learners.

BLOCK OR UNIT PLANS

Life is a succession of activities in meeting needs and in solving problems. The daily life of each individual is made up of attempts to deal with several individual or group situations. Each situation represents a unit of experience for the person. Some are short and carried out in a single activity during part of one day. Others require a number of closely related activities, each a part of a day, over many days. Still others are activities to which individuals give a major part of each day over a period of time. No matter what the comprehensiveness or length of time involved in a situation, some kind of plan should be made for each experience-unit. Thus the unit or block plan is a projection of how you and your student-colleague anticipate you will help pupils deal with a situation or solve a problem of everyday living which is important and meaningful to them.

The unit or block plan provides a long-range view of the activities in which you and the pupils will need to engage as you work on the problem or deal with the situation being studied. It provides the "look ahead" and the careful advanced study that helps you to guide pupils wisely in setting up plans for working on a problem, in evaluating the worth of their suggestions, and in carrying out their plans as you work together.

While this discussion has emphasized the situation or problem as the organizing focus of the unit of work, there are units of work focused on topics or areas of a subject: for example, hot dry lands, the Magna Carta, the Middle Ages, or propaganda. Both types of block plans are derived from the same essential factor of *unity*, the bringing together of closely related items. The same elements are a part of each type of unit plan; the items selected for study and their grouping to provide unity differ.

The Essential Content of the Plan Encompasses the Basic Elements of Good Teaching

What is included in the block or unit plan is determined by the essential elements in good teaching. The plan needs to include

suggestions relating to the things every good teacher thinks about as he plans for and guides a teaching-learning experience: the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils, the goals to be achieved, the kinds of activities on the part of the teacher and learners which will contribute to those goals, and materials needed in carrying out the activities. These are essentials which your student teacher will recognize as being the same as those involved in planning everyday activities—the vacation trip, preparing to give a party, making a dress, or solving a problem in a college class.

Help your student teacher to see planning as something with which he is already familiar and thus remove some of his feelings of strangeness and concern about this aspect of the teacher's work. The new or different part of the student's learning is application of previous knowledge about planning to the particular group of learners and the situation or problem with which they are concerned. In helping your student teacher do this, you will find it useful to consider with him what each aspect of planning means in preparing a unit plan for teaching.

Selecting the unit. As in everyday life, a decision must be made as to the situation to which attention will be given—whether to plan a party or make the needed dress; what problem to consider next in a college class. Similarly, the teacher of children or youth must make a choice among possible experience-units. Nothing is quite so challenging and stimulating to a creative teacher as the tentative selection of the unit of work. Careful selection means a worthwhile and productive experience for both pupils and teacher.

Several criteria may be applied in selecting from among possible areas of experience . . .

- Which is most meaningful to the pupils—most closely related to situations with which they are faced and which relate to or can be related to their purposes?
- Which has the richest possibilities in the development of the understandings and skills necessary to cope with life situations for which the school should assume responsibility?
- Which is best suited to the needs and abilities of the group?

The answers to the first and third questions are derived from two sources: (1) study of the over-view plan to note the kinds of situations with which the pupils are faced in their daily living as a result of their background and present environment—situations which are a part of their living of which they may or may not be conscious at present, and (2) further study of the pupils, with special reference to their needs and abilities as these relate to the proposed unit. The second source includes study of cumulative pupil records and knowledge of previous experiences, with their resultant understandings and skills. From the over-view plan it can be determined which of the units that rate high on the first and third criteria also contribute to further understanding of basic life situations not otherwise provided for in the learners' curriculum. The tentative selection is based upon relating the needs and interests of the pupils to the fundamental problems and situations with which all individuals must learn to deal in coping with the world of things, people, and relationships.

Setting the goals. In making the tentative selection of an experience-unit, the second step—setting goals—has been partially taken. In preparing a unit plan, most teachers find it useful to outline both pupil and teacher goals. The goals which the teacher keeps in mind are (1) the basic problems and situations (selected from the over-view plan) which will be considered in working on the unit, and (2) the understandings and skills needed in dealing with them. The goals in the second group are likely to be set by the learners and related to their own approach to the unit. What is the problem or situation with which they are concerned? For example, the teacher may see the second graders' responsibility for the Lost and Found Department as contributing, at their level of maturity, to such problems as . . .

Carrying out commitments
Respecting property rights
Keeping accurate records
Expressing ideas clearly

while the children are concerned in the beginning only with the first, which they state as . . .

To help children find their lost things
To get things back to the right children

Taking time to project goals as the pupils are likely to see them has two major values. First, it contributes to implementing the principle of starting with learners where they are and serves as a caution or check against asking pupils to work on teacher-identified goals which have little or no meaning for them at the time. Second, the identification of the problem as the pupils see it suggests the approach to the area of study when pupils and teacher begin to work on it together. The pupil goals are the starting point. They represent the goals held in common at the beginning of the unit; other goals held by the teacher are recognized by the pupils as they move ahead in their work. In helping learners start with their concerns and gradually extend their insights and set new goals, the teacher is guided by his block or unit plan.

Projecting the activities. Having identified the starting point and the major goals to be achieved, the third step in planning an experience-unit is to project the pupil-teacher activities necessary to carry the work forward to successful fruition. This involves careful thinking through of the major steps to be taken, the projected sequence, or the unfolding, of activities in keeping with the stage of development of the pupils. This part of the plan shows the larger steps in the development of the unit; the more detailed activities might better be outlined in daily plans, as the work develops and the reactions of pupils to each step can be studied. A single step, as outlined in the unit plan, may involve several days of work. It is usually helpful to indicate, in relation to each step, the essential content needed in carrying out that activity. As desired by the individual teacher, this may be a brief or more detailed memorandum of major content items.

Teachers often find it useful to develop this part of the unit plan in two parallel columns—one the projected activities and content to be used in carrying them out, and the other a blank column to be used as a space for recording the actual sequence of activities and major concepts developed as the work is carried out with the pupils. The second column serves as a record of work carried out. The evident differences between the projected plan and its actual development with the pupils clearly point to items which you may wish to discuss with your student teacher. He probably will find it helpful to consider with you the

reasons for making the change and whether, in light of further reflection, it was a wise decision to change. Such discussion will help him to grow in his understanding of how to use a plan and how to modify it in light of new elements in a situation.

CONSIDERING MATERIALS. The last major step in planning a unit of work involves the consideration of materials needed in carrying out the various activities. This step involves identifying the kinds of materials needed, checking on their availability, and selecting those which meet specific needs. Through this part of unit planning your student teacher is helped to become acquainted with sources of materials and grows in ability to test and judge their worth for the specific purpose and the particular pupils to be served.

The Number of Unit Plans Needed Varies

If the unit of experience is defined as the series of closely related activities engaged in to deal with a situation faced by learners, the number of unit plans with which you and your student teacher will be working at any one time will depend on the number of different situations on which the pupils are working at the given time.

For example, the high school teacher working with five different class groups will have a block plan as a guide for working with each group. The teacher responsible for the fifth grade will have four unit plans if the group is currently working on managing the school store, preparing their spring gardens, considering the work of the local community chest and what their part should be in its activities, and working on stage sets and music for their assembly program for Good Book Week. The pupils will doubtless be at different stages in the development of the various units and the teacher will not have found it necessary to plan all four unit plans at the same time. The plan for guiding the group in carrying out their responsibility for managing the school store was doubtless prepared before the opening of the school year, while the plan for developing spring gardens would be developed during the spring semester when the teacher was

better acquainted with the pupils and nearer the time when it would be used.

The unit of work is not a special type of activity applied or used in selected situations or areas of study. It is a concept which applies to all aspects of the curriculum, a concept related to a curriculum developed around pupils' experiences and the situations of daily life, as proposed in this discussion, or in terms of topics in various subject fields. The quality of unity—the bringing together of closely related items—is the essential element of unit planning. Where the curriculum is organized around topics or subject areas, a unit plan will be made for each such major topic or area. Where the organization is in terms of pupil experiences in relation to life problems and situations, these become the focus of the unit or block plan.

Even though this and the foregoing points will have been discussed with your student by his college teachers, there is another item which will take on new meaning as you consider it with him in relation to the specific planning which you do together. Reference is made to the practice in some schools of allocating certain units of work to a specific grade or age level. To do so is to minimize the importance of planning work for a particular pupil group. Every group is different from every other in its rate and process of development, as well as its needs at any given time. While it is true that certain areas of experience, by analysis and trial with learners, seem to be suitable to the usual development of children or youth, their selection must be made anew and rest upon their worth for *the* particular group. Then, too, even if the area of study is the same as that worked on by previous groups, its development may need to be greatly modified in working with the present pupils. In creative and artistic teaching, previously taught units are used primarily as sounding boards of activities effective or not so effective with other pupils and from which teachers learn better ways of working with the present group of learners.

Student Teachers Find Illustrative Unit Plans Helpful

The preceding discussion has pointed to the essential characteristics of the unit plan as the bringing together of closely related

items in a natural unity. Depending upon the problem or area of study, the unit will be long or short in duration, will deal primarily with materials in a single subject or draw upon content from several fields. While your student teacher will have had some experience in developing such plans, he will need careful guidance from you in applying what he knows to planning in a particular situation and for specific pupils. In addition to sharing with him your own plans, it is often quite helpful to students if they may discuss with you illustrative plans. The following excerpts from unit plans may serve this purpose.

A UNIT PLAN DEVELOPED AS A RESULT OF OBSERVATIONS OF SIXTH GRADE CHILDREN'S READING HABITS. Over the first few weeks of the year this sixth grade teacher observed that some of the pupils turned to reading almost every time they had a free moment. He made some notes on what they selected to read and found that two of the boys read nothing but poor quality comic books, three others invariably chose magazines on science, and many of the girls tended to find what he viewed as rather undesirable novels. Furthermore, it was clear to him that some pupils never chose to read when they had the opportunity. Reflecting upon these observations and the goals he had included in his long-range plan for the year's work, he decided to develop an experience-unit through which he might help boys and girls more nearly achieve some of the skills and attitudes essential to recreational reading. He first made a list of what he hoped to accomplish, which included such objectives as these:

Extending the range of choice open to pupils through introducing a wide variety of materials

Contributing to children's permanent interest in reading

Building discriminating tastes in selection of books, magazines, and newspapers

Analyzing specific needs of individuals, and considering the opportunities present in the school and community environment, he projected a range of possible activities that would provide for differences in interests and maturity levels.

SUGGESTED DEVELOPMENT OF ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss with individuals and small groups (during library periods or free time) books they are reading or ones they read during the summer.

   a. Note types of books selected.
   b. Note special interests expressed.
   c. Note any difficulties suggested by comments.
2. Discuss with the class interesting facts about books mentioned by individuals. (Have children contribute to this.)
3. Discuss ways in which we can keep one another informed about interesting books.
   a. Post book jackets.
   b. Put on bulletin board such items as: book reviews, both from newspapers and magazines and from children's work.
   c. Build a card file of worthwhile and interesting books suggested by individuals—add some myself.
   d. Exchange books from our personal libraries (This will have to be planned carefully, perhaps with parents, too).
4. Write book reviews.
   a. Pupils will need help with what to include, especially what kinds of comments to make about the book.
      1) Group discussions on what should be included.
      2) Oral criticism of some reviews.
   b. File reviews in card index and use index in selecting things to read.
5. Learn how to use the library card catalog.
   a. Bring in the librarian to work with us.
   b. Take a trip to the public library and get the help of Miss Hubbard.
6. Continue to provide time for recreational reading but try to provide individual guidance in selection of material.
7. Develop some suggested lists of books for groups and individuals.
   a. We might send our list to the librarian.
   b. Buying lists could be shared with parents.
8. Try some group activities for recreational reading.
   a. Read selected poetry and prose to children as occasion permits.
   b. Have individuals read to small groups things they have especially enjoyed.
9. Consider problems raised in the reading activities and plan ways of helping individuals with them.

In addition to the goals and suggested activities indicated above as parts of the plan, the teacher included specific abilities to be kept in mind in realizing goals, understandings to be developed, and essential types of reading activities to be carried on in the total program.

A UNIT PLAN BASED ON A SPECIFIC INTEREST MANIFESTED BY FOURTH GRADE CHILDREN. Coming into his classroom one morning, Mr. Williams found a group of children huddled around a small table and deeply involved in talking about a map one of the pupils had brought. As time approached for getting started with the planned activities of the day, the teacher noticed that more children had joined the small group, so he went to them. On his mind was the question, "Is this interest one we should follow up with some study?" He listened to the conversation. Finally he suggested that they list some of the questions they were asking about the map. They listed these:

What does this map tell?
How do you read this (pointing to the legend)?
What is a scale? What does it mean?
What do these lines mean (referring to longitude and latitude lines)?
How can I locate my house on this map?
Who made this map?

Then and there they began to explore some answers to these questions but quickly discovered that they needed more information. That evening Mr. Williams sat down to review what had happened during the day and ponder over the map incident. He applied his criteria for judging whether to encourage the children to spend their time in school pursuing this problem, whether he should take some initiative in helping them to extend their concern, and whether the interest expressed was significant for all of the children or for only a few. He concluded that it would be worthwhile to develop an experience-unit around this interest in maps. He put his thinking in writing, and the following are excerpts from his plan:

WHAT CAN I HELP CHILDREN TO ACCOMPLISH THROUGH THIS UNIT?

Recognize and appreciate the use of maps as sources of information.

Develop skills in using maps.

Understand what lies back of a map—the research and study.

Get the concept of maps as symbolic representations.

WHAT KINDS OF ACTIVITIES WILL HELP US ACHIEVE SUCH GOALS? (Start with the questions we listed today.)

1. What does a map tell? How do you read the legend? What is a scale?

Have children bring in various kinds of maps. Discuss what they tell. Note how different kinds of information are recorded on maps (products, climate, physical characteristics, political divisions, population).

See how much information can be secured from different maps.

Discuss how maps are used and by what kinds of persons (travelers, government administrators, industrial and agricultural specialists, advertisers, businessmen, and other individuals).

Show how the length and width of our room could be indicated in scale. Apply this to a road map.

Develop with the class a floor plan for our room and do a legend for identifying various things. Apply this to several different maps.

2. What do these lines mean (latitude and longitude)?

Demonstrate what happens to paper when you try to wrap it around a globe.

Provide some information on how early maps were made in comparison with present techniques.

Get material from the library that might help on how early maps were made. (Check this tomorrow.)

3. . . . . .

A HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEACHER DEVELOPS A UNIT PLAN RELATING TO AN ALL-SCHOOL RESPONSIBILITY. Teachers working with high school youth also find it helpful to develop unit plans, as is illustrated by the following excerpts from a plan used in a tenth grade English class. In this high school it was a tradition that the junior English class publish a school-commuity paper. Written in both English and Spanish, the paper was an important vehicle for many in the local community as well as for high school students. About mid-semester the tenth grade (to be juniors the following year) suggested that they get ready for their future work in publishing—they wanted their newspaper to be the best ever. For several reasons, it seemed to be a good proposal, and the teacher proceeded to develop a plan for a unit on modern newspapers.

GOALS: To help these students develop

Discrimination in reading newspapers; ways to seek reliable news sources.

Efficient ways of dealing with division of labor on the newspaper staff. (Tie this to the general concept of interdependence among people.)

Appreciation of the role of the press as a social institution.

. . . . . .

Security in carrying out assignment to publish the newspaper.

. . . . . .

Necessary skills in newspaper work—effective reporting, editorial writing, business management.

SUGGESTED PLAN OF WORK:

Develop with the students the kinds of study that would be most helpful in getting ready for next year's work. These might be:

How to make the newspaper a real influence in the school and the community;

Ways of dealing with problems in publishing, especially writing;

Practice and critical evaluation of writing. (Students will need help on attitudes here.)

Plan with the students what particular areas we should focus on. These might be:

Comparative study of representative daily newspapers

Comparison of news reported on same day
Relative space given to different kinds of news
Contrast of editorial policies
Comparison of news items and editorials on same subject

. . . . . .

The making of a modern newspaper

Illustrated talk by Mr. Patterson from the staff of The Mirror
Visit to The Mirror plant

. . . . . .

More intensive study of various problems of newspaper writing (as related to staff jobs)

Writing editorials
Reporting news (include the interview)
Writing headlines
(Call attention to synonym to replace overworked word, use of single word as replacement of several, dictionary of commonly misused words, effectiveness of lead sentences.)

. . . . . .

Tentative though block or unit plans must be, they serve as a valuable resource in preparing daily plans. The amount of thought that goes into them makes it possible to reduce the time given to the specific plans for guiding a particular day's work.

DAY-BY-DAY PLANNING

For the teacher working in a core program or a self-contained classroom, day-by-day planning has two aspects—the scheduling of the day's activities and the outlining of the more specific details for that day's work on each problem. (The high school teacher not engaged in a core or block program works only with the second type of day-by-day plan; the pupils' schedules of activities for the day have already been determined.) As in unit planning, the two aspects of daily planning are cooperatively developed by teacher and learners. Like the larger block planning, cooperative daily planning is guided by the advanced planning of the day's work by the teacher—plans which are flexibly organized and subject to change as learners make their contributions. Your student will need help with scheduling the day's work and with preparing plans to guide pupils in carrying out the activities of the day.

The Daily Schedule Needs to Be Planned

In planning a schedule for the day, thought is given to the specific activities and problems which need to be considered that day. How far along are individuals and groups on the major projects under way: What time do they need, what difficulties have they encountered on which they need help? Are needed skills being developed adequately or is time needed for further practice? What is required to provide a balanced program—rest and activity, work in various fields? What routine activities must be provided for—recreation, lunch, others? Are there any special situations to be planned for—health examinations, an assembly program, times when specialists are free, special meetings of the student council or other all-school committees? How can these various needs in the schedule of the day best be met?

Daily Plans Serve as Guides for Next Steps in a Unit of Work

The daily plan represents the more detailed consideration of the development of those parts of the unit plan to be carried

out on the given day. The block plan provides the "look ahead" that gives perspective; the daily plan grows out of the more intensive look at the "here and now"—what should be done next in light of what has been happening. The plan for a given day's work in any area is made in view of what has preceded and thereby provides more specifically for the developing needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils. The plan for tomorrow is made *after* today's work in the area is completed. The daily plan and unit plan are one and the same when an experience is planned and completed in a single period of work.

Daily planning, like unit planning, deals with the same essentials that an individual considers in planning for the next day of a vacation trip or any other everyday activity—what particular aspects of his larger goals he hopes and is likely to achieve on the morrow, what he must keep in mind and do in realizing his hopes, and what materials he will need to use. As in unit planning, it is helpful if the student teacher applies to his planning for a day's teaching the steps which he would take in planning for one day of some continuing situation in his everyday living. In helping him do this you may wish to bring the following to his attention.

When the unit plan has been carefully thought through, and when teachers and pupils are continuing work on a unit on consecutive days, it is often unnecessary to outline in writing the specific goals for the following day. The clear delineation of *goals for the next day's* work in an area may result from careful reflection on today's work—what was accomplished, how far did the group and individuals move ahead toward achieving their goals, what difficulties did they encounter, what did they today see as their objective for tomorrow? From the answers to these questions, the teacher is ready to plan next steps—what should take place when the group works on the problem again and what is the order in which it is likely to take place—what should be the *activities of pupils and teacher*? In light of the activities envisioned, what *content and other materials* are needed? In the daily plan the teacher's consideration and selection of instructional materials is much more specific than in planning a unit. It may be helpful to include exact memoranda of data which the teacher expects to place on the board. The daily plan, like all other plans, is a "service tool." As such, exact mate-

rial noted in the plan under each of the above major categories, to which the teacher must give consideration in projecting his teaching, will be determined by the needs of the individual teacher.

A DAILY PLAN FROM THE UNIT ON PREPARING TO PUBLISH A NEWSPAPER. The plans selected as illustrative of the preparation of a guide for working with pupils in carrying out one day's work on a continuing unit relate to the previously illustrated unit plans. The first is the daily plan used by the teacher in helping the group with editorial writing.

Tenth Grade EDITORIAL WRITING *May 10*

1. Explore the meaning and purpose of an editorial—how it differs from a standard news story. (Have Ken read his editorial.)
   a. Reflects an expression of opinion by the paper or an individual about some matter held to be important to put before the readers of the paper (an issue).
   b. Involves thinking a thing through and expressing it so others will be influenced. (Use last paragraph from Peggy's editorial to illustrate.)
   c. Is a positive expression of an actual opinion (commentative vs. militant).
   d. Is a signed article.
2. Test points noted (No. 1) by comparing news items and editorials on the same subject.
   a. Use duplicated copies of news item and editorial. (I'll bring.)
   b. Make same test with paper brought by each pupil.
3. Discover any new points or changes that need to be made in items noted (No. 1). Pupil to illustrate from his newspaper.
4. Compare editorials from last week's paper.
5. Which subjects in today's editorials would be appropriate for our paper?

PLAN NEXT STEPS My suggestions are:

a. Write an editorial appropriate for the next issue of the school paper.
b. State the criteria by which you would like it judged.
c. Have selected editorials duplicated for study and evaluation.

MAGNETISM—A DAILY PLAN IN THE FOURTH GRADE STUDYING MAPS. The daily plan which follows grew out of the group's

consideration of how location and direction are shown on maps —latitude and longitude and points of the compass. As might be expected with even this able group of youngsters, these were difficult areas of understanding. Just how a compass works was intriguing but it was hard to understand the earth itself as being a magnet. The difficulties encountered led to the suggestion that the group take the next day to find out more about magnets. What makes the compass magnetic needle point north —what attracts it—was the question that was so puzzling to these fourth graders. Gene volunteered to get a magnet from the science laboratory so the group could find out what a magnet attracts. How to start at this point and help them to a better understanding—certainly one which could not be complete and entirely clear—was the problem with which the cooperating teacher and student struggled as they prepared the following daily plan.

MAGNETISM

January 26

1. What will a magnet attract?
   - Ask Gene to place magnet in pile of miscellaneous material.
   - Collect paper, glass, nails, tin can top, pennies (also 2 bar magnets for later in period).
   - Children test with other things they have.
   - Clarify: Magnets will not attract pure tin (tin can is iron coated with tin); magnets will attract iron, steel, nickel; what hand compass is made of.
2. Where do magnets come from?
   - a. Natural magnets
     - Demonstrate with piece of loadstone. (Get from science lab.)
     - Note sailors' one-time use of loadstone as compass. (Allen would probably like to read *Early Days at Sea.*)
     - Miss Steinway (student teacher) to share a piece of magnetic rock she got in Norway. (Tell where found.)
     - The earth a natural magnet (gravity).
   - b. Man-made magnets
     - Send electricity through a coil of wire. Use dry cell. (Bobby may be ready to do this experiment for group.)
     - Make an electromagnet.
       - 1) Wind several layers of wire over pencil, attach to dry cell, and test as magnet.
       - 2) Substitute small bolt for pencil; demonstrate increased lifting power with an iron core.

Test holding power of steel as magnet.

1) Hold magnet against piece of iron and use as magnet—iron a magnet only as long as our magnet is touching it.
2) Do same with piece of steel—remains a magnet after our magnet is removed.
3) Magnetize a piece of steel.

The group would not be able to deal with all their questions on magnets during one class period, so Mr. Williams and the student teacher planned to focus attention on some experimentation to introduce and clarify the idea of natural magnets and electromagnets, as indicated in the excerpts from the plan. However, they were prepared to move further into the children's questions, should time permit. It was thought that they might next seek answers to such questions as:

Does a magnet attract equally at all points?

How can you tell which is North Pole and which is South Pole?

What do the things we have been talking about have to do with the compass?

In each of these areas cooperating and student teacher had prepared suggestions as to how the children might be guided in profitable exploration of their questions.

Having a carefully thought through plan at hand, the teacher has both greater security and greater freedom to think with the group, to watch their responses and leads, and to make sound judgments regarding modifications that are suggested.

PLANS FOR ACTIVITIES OTHER THAN TEACHING

The teacher carries out many activities in addition to those of teaching children or youth—conferences with parents, work on committees of colleagues, activities relating to work in professional organizations, participation in faculty meetings. When the teacher has a leadership role in these activities, there is need to plan in the same way in which plans are made for guiding pupils. While the content of the activities will be different, and the teacher's leadership role in some cases—especially when there is a peer group—is more likely to be that of a moderator, there is need (1) to gain an over-view of the goals to be achieved and have some knowledge of how the individuals involved relate themselves

to those goals (the over-view plan); (2) to block out a plan of steps to be taken to reach the objectives (the unit plan); and (3) to prepare the guide to be used at a particular meeting or conference (the daily plan).

As you engage in activities with parents, colleagues, and other professional workers, share your planning for them with your student teacher. It is important that he see the value of planning for such activities, as well as for teaching, and grow in ability to make plans for similar activities which will be a part of his professional responsibilities.

YOUR STUDENT TEACHER AND THE PLANNING PROCESS

There is no exact sequence for inducting your student teacher into the planning process. Students will differ in their past experiences with planning and their insight into what is involved, and will start work with you when you are at different stages in the planning process yourself. Most students will have discussed planning in their college classes. Some may have tried to prepare a block or unit plan. This may prove to be a handicap rather than a help if the plan was made without reference to a particular pupil group. Others may have been fortunate enough to have studied the various plans of the teachers whom they observed or with whom they carried on other pre-student-teaching laboratory experiences. They will know what is included in a unit and daily plan and how they are used in working with pupils.

The first step for your student teacher will be to become acquainted with the unit and daily plans which are guiding your work. If he begins his student teaching after you and the pupils are already at work, his participation in the planning process may be . . .

- First, study of your unit plans and if possible your daily plans for the first day he is to be with you.
- Second, cooperative development of plans for the next day. Your role should gradually change from that of thinking the plan through aloud, with the student acknowledging and approving what you propose, to thinking aloud with the student also making proposals and raising questions, on to the student taking major responsibility for planning the next day's

work while you offer suggestions and approve proposals which he makes.

- Third, outlining of the daily plan independently, sharing it with you for reactions.
- Fourth, cooperative planning of the next experience-unit.

In engaging in steps 2 and 3 the student will make use of the unit plans which you have developed. Through step 4 he will become acquainted with your over-view plan for the term or year.

While the foregoing are likely steps in the planning process for many students, even the student teacher who begins work with you after the year's or semester's work has begun may arrive at a time when you are engaged in outlining a new unit plan while continuing to make daily plans for use in guiding the completion of a unit under way. In this case the student may begin step 4 along with steps 2 or 3, depending upon his readiness to engage in both aspects of planning almost concurrently.

The student teacher who starts at the beginning of a school year will doubtless participate in the development of the over-view plan for the term or year and will in sequence share in planning unit and daily plans as you take those steps. The sequence of steps in becoming acquainted with the planning process, however, is much less important than *sharing intimately in the planning which you do and seeing its significance in teaching.* To see planning as an essential and integral part of teaching is imperative if the student is to include it as an important part of his work as a teacher.

One other guide is also useful in acquainting your student teacher with the process of planning, namely, *sharing in the planning process* throughout his work with you *whether his role is that of assisting or carrying major teaching responsibility.* The importance of the student's active involvement in the teaching-learning situation from the very beginning has been considered in an earlier chapter. In no small measure intelligent involvement is contingent upon understanding what is taking place and how it relates to what the teacher is trying to accomplish and what the concerns of learners are. Sharing in the plans which are guiding your work makes this possible. Participating in planning, therefore, should not be delayed until the student teacher assumes

major teaching responsibility. Nor should the nature of the planning engaged in be different for his observation and participation activities. Whether, in teaching cooperatively with you, he is engaged in participating or in assuming a leadership role, he needs to share in developing and using unit and daily plans.

QUESTIONS OF CONCERN TO STUDENTS AND COOPERATING TEACHERS

As students and cooperating teachers work together in planning, a number of questions arise: Should all plans be written? Should the student teacher be permitted to assume responsibility for guiding a group if he has not made adequate plans? Is there a special form that should be used in planning? How far in advance of teaching should a plan be made? Is it necessary that the cooperating teacher see all plans? How should plans be evaluated? What factors should be taken into account in arriving at answers to these and related questions? You and your student teacher will need to reach decisions on these matters. The discussion which follows considers them in light of what is known about the basic principles governing learning.

Should Plans Be Written?

No categorical "yes" or "no" answer can be given if the principle of individual differences is kept in mind. This principle suggests that there will be some student teachers and some cooperating teachers who can project a clear picture of a plan mentally and hold that plan in mind without the aid of a written notation. Are you one of this group of individuals who has a photographic mind? Experience suggests that they are few in number. Unless you and your student belong to this small group, it would seem necessary to commit your ideas to writing if the best possible experience is to be provided for learners.

In the interest of learners, four major values result from written plans. First, for most individuals definite commitment to writing induces *more specific thinking* in advance. Second, and closely related to the first point, the written plan *brings into clearer focus the sequence and continuity of learning* provided. Looking at a

plan as a total "picture," the several parts and different activities can be seen in relationship—how they are interrelated, how one step leads naturally to another, or whether pupils will be asked to jump hither and yon in their thinking. Third, the written statement provides *a point of reference* for the teacher *during teaching*. Having the essential guides for teaching thus accessible, the teacher is freed to observe and think about the reactions of pupils instead of being required to give part-thought to points made with them which for the present have slipped from memory. The plan, written and at hand, provides a kind of *security* important to the veteran teacher and especially to the novice.

Fourth, the written plan contributes to keeping *a record of what happened*, as notations are made after teaching to show changes in the original plan. Such a record becomes useful in further planning by helping the teacher reflect on changes made—Were they sound decisions? What do the changes (or lack of them) suggest regarding leadership? What do they indicate for next steps? The notation of changes and additions can be made quickly by using the original plan as the structural frame—much more quickly than writing the complete record after teaching. As a statement of what is planned and a record of what has taken place thus far, the written plan—especially the unit or block plan—also serves to help those who carry on in your absence. Plans are important guides for the substitute teacher who temporarily takes your place.

The foregoing four values are important for the teacher's work with children or youth. Still other reasons for plans to be written—both for the sake of the pupils and for the student and cooperating teacher—become evident when you and your student teacher work cooperatively. When two or more people teach cooperatively the plan must be shared. Each must know what the other has in mind to accomplish and to do if he is to participate intelligently. This need would be present for any teachers working as a teaching team and applies to you and your student teacher. In addition, it is important that the cooperating teacher's plans be available in writing for other college students who observe or engage in pre-student-teaching participation.

The student teacher's plans need to be at hand also if you, and the college supervisor, are to give needed constructive criticism and suggestions. Positive proposals and helpful guides can be

made more easily and effectively on the basis of written outlines than from oral explanations of plans. Then, too, the time comes when your student teacher will reach the stage when he assumes major responsibility for making the initial draft of a plan. Many cooperating teachers can see more clearly what the student teacher proposes to do if the work is outlined in writing, and, in the last analysis, you are responsible for the welfare of the pupils. Asking the student to commit his thinking to writing in no way reflects upon his ability, and most students are quick to see the values of written plans as they share your plans and discuss with you the reasons for planning in writing.

What about the one or two students who question the value of written plans? Should they be required to write out their plans? When one recalls the importance of the learner's purpose in the learning process, it would seem that making written plans mandatory through fiat would do little to achieve the desired goal. In fact, it might cause the student to become even more fixed in his conviction that "I will never plan once I get out of this situation." The goal is not only to help the student plan now but to so guide him that he sees the value of planning and develops a way of planning that he will continue to use throughout his teaching career.

This goal is more likely to be realized if you discuss with your student the values which you see in the written plan, indicate that you recognize the possibility of his being one of the few persons who have a photographic mind, suggest that he share his thinking with you orally, and that together you test whether the non-written plan is adequate for him—the test being the quality of his teaching. It then becomes important that you be especially vigilant in recording the quality of teaching done, and where such is the case, point to ways in which difficulties encountered might have been obviated by written plans. The difficulties most often met relate to a better sequence of activities with pupils and to points not anticipated. When this happens once or twice, most students are ready to accept the fairness of your proposal that they try writing plans to see if this helps to overcome the difficulties encountered without the written plan. The student and you then have a common purpose in developing a plan in writing and in testing its effectiveness as an aid to teaching.

How Detailed Should Plans Be? Does the Answer Differ for the Novice and the Experienced Teacher?

The illustrative plans in this chapter suggest that some are developed in greater detail than others, whether they are unit plans or daily plans. The amount of detail is determined primarily by two factors—the need of the individual who is to use the plan for such detail, and the use to which the plan is to be put. The principle of individual differences also applies to this question. Some individuals find it helpful to plan in detail, while others need only jot down the general idea. The needs of one individual differ when that person works in different areas. Major ideas may be adequate when working on one unit, while detailed memoranda may be necessary in guiding pupils at work on a different unit. The first answer to the question on the nature and amount of detail is contingent upon what is needed by the particular student teacher. What makes him feel most secure and serves as his best guide for working effectively with learners? This is the first and most important criterion.

There is a second criterion that merits consideration when the teacher is a member of a teaching team. What is needed to make thinking clear to others who are to participate in the activity? In implementing the second guide it is important also to keep in mind that what works for you may not work for your student teacher. Your needs for a more or a less detailed plan should not be the determining factor. The amount of detail needed by the student for his use and to make clear what he plans to do so you can guide him and participate helpfully should be the bases for decision.

There is a third factor which should not be lost sight of, namely, the need to engage in a kind of planning which is practical and useful for the student when he is a regular member of a school staff and doubtless will not have the help of a teaching-colleague. Daily plans which take hours to develop are impossible to prepare when the teacher carries a full teaching responsibility. Now, when the student is with you in student teaching, is the time for him to learn how to plan adequately and at the same time live a life not given solely to professional activities.

Many students and some cooperating and college teachers urge students to plan in greater detail when they first begin student teaching, suggesting that they will not need to engage in such detailed planning as they become more experienced. The real difference in the planning engaged in by the novice and the experienced teacher is not in the detail of the plan but in the ease of projecting a plan. Planning is a skill which, like any other skill, develops through practice. As the student continues to plan, he is more likely to see what is needed and is less hesitant in choosing among alternatives. Also, as he continues to work in an area, he finds that he has more readily at hand certain basic content and materials. He has mastered certain facts, is sure of them, and may not need to note them. While these are factors relating to his experience, they do not change the amount of planning which he must do. When, as a teacher of many years of experience, he works in new areas, he will find that he plans in the same detail that he did when working in new areas as a novice. Because children and youth are individuals—different one from the other and one group from another—plans will differ as the teacher works with one class and then with another. Always there is need to plan carefully and in enough detail to provide the essential guides and confidence for the teacher at that time—better to err in planning too carefully than not fully enough.

Considering the amount of detail that should go into a plan, one other query often arises. Will not detailed planning tend to cause teachers to be less sensitive to the modifications made necessary by the reactions of the learners? Will teachers be willing to take pupils' proposals into account and change their plans accordingly? They will if they are teachers who really understand the importance of the individual and his purposes in the learning process. Further, freedom to deviate from a given path and to follow new leads intelligently rests on acquaintance with and understanding of the area in which work is to be done. Planning contributes to this understanding. Much of the basic work that has gone into the tentative plan—the long-range goals, study of the learners and factors in their background and present environment—is pertinent to any change to be made. Good teaching requires time and effort to plan carefully and to modify plans in light of pupil responses.

Should a Particular Form Be Used in Planning?

Earlier discussion has suggested that the form of plan used should be that which the student teacher will find useful when he is on his own, carrying full responsibility as a regular member of a teaching staff. And the principle of individual differences also applies here. The form used by your student teacher should be one which is useful for him.

It is not enough, however, to work through this type of answer with your student in response to his question about the form of plan to be used, and to indicate that he may use a form of his own designing. Most student teachers will want help in thinking about what should go into a plan. While inviting your student to use any form of planning which is useful to him, it is well to point out that a plan is a projection of a teaching-learning situation and there are certain things that every good teacher thinks about in getting ready to teach. These—the pupils and their needs and abilities, the indicated goals toward which they should work, what pupils and teacher will do in trying to achieve the goals, and the materials to be used—are the essentials of any plan. They are what the plan will contain, in an organization or form suited to those who are to use it.

A related question of concern to some student teachers is whether the content and form of plans differ when working with younger and older children and high school youth; whether the same essentials are involved in planning for work and study periods as for developmental discussion activities, for work in academic fields as for such "special" areas as music, art, and physical education, for guiding in-class experiences as for working with pupils in non-class activities. The answer to each of the questions is "no." The same basic educational principles govern work with the youngest child and the high school senior, with experiences dealing with content from academic fields and content from those not usually referred to as "academic," with pupils working in the classroom and pupils engaged in out-of-class activities.

Governed by the same educational principles, the teacher in each case deals with the same elements of planning—goals, activi-

ties, materials. The content of each of these elements will differ according to the maturity of the pupils and the problem or area of study, but not the factors which affect learning and the principles which are basic to high quality in learning. It is important that you help your student teacher to apply these educational principles in planning work in various areas. This perhaps can best be seen by looking at particular plans, such as those given earlier in this chapter.

How Can Unit and Daily Plans Provide for the Pupils' Part in Planning?

One of the educational principles referred to frequently in this volume relates to the importance of the learner's purpose. The literature dealing with the nature of the learning process establishes quite clearly that the individual learns in terms of his purpose and the meaning that a situation has for him. Learning is facilitated and teaching is more satisfying and productive when pupils participate in planning their work. By sharing in the responsibility of planning their experiences, pupils help teachers to understand their purposes and they themselves learn how to think through problems and make arrangements for solving them. These values suggest the importance of cooperative planning with pupils.

Among the first items in the unit or block plan, as you and your student teacher consider pupil-teacher activities, are those providing for pupil participation in planning. What steps will be taken to help pupils identify their needs or discover their interests? How will they be helped to focus their interests and purposes in defining the problem or situation on which they will work next? What is involved in their organizing for work and reaching agreements about responsibilities? Your tentative unit plan serves as the guide to developing with pupils the block plan which will give direction to your joint activities in the days ahead. It is suggested that the group write out their plan of action as far as they can envision it, just as you have made your tentative plan. It should be posted or otherwise be made available for all members and referred to as needed.

Where the experience-unit is rather complex, several days

may be required in planning the unit cooperatively. In this case the daily plans for this period will spell out more fully how you will help pupils carry out this step of planning a block of work. Later, daily plans will provide for further planning as steps taken are evaluated and pupils are able to see more clearly what still needs to be done to achieve their goal.

In providing for pupil participation in planning their work, attention must be given to their background of experience in such planning. Just as in any other type of activity, what they will be ready and able to do in this aspect of problem solving will be determined by their previous opportunities to plan. If it is a new experience, the group will need to rely on their teacher for much guidance or they will travel down blind alleys with little profit to themselves. Your assistance is especially needed in such cases, but your leadership is an important part of cooperative pupil planning at any time—even with pupil groups that by experience have become quite skilled in this process. It is your responsibility to guide discussion so that genuineness of purpose and reality of need become evident and are accepted by the pupils. It is your responsibility to help pupils to look critically at proposals made, to see new possibilities, and to grow in ability to work together effectively. These are responsibilities which your student teacher will need help in carrying; they point to competence in which he needs to grow through your help. They suggest that the teacher's role is dual—both a member of the group and a guide. Work moves forward under the combined thinking of pupils and teacher. It moves forward more smoothly and effectively because you and your student teacher have provided for planning with your pupils and have been helpfully guided in taking this step with learners by your advanced planning.

How Far in Advance of Teaching Should Plans Be Made? Should All Plans Be Approved by the Cooperating Teacher?

In most instances the experience-unit can be planned some little time in advance of its use in working with pupils. When

there are specific responsibilities which a given group have for the ongoing work of the school—the school store or bank, the school newspaper or magazine, the lost and found department, the school materials center, or aspects of library activities—plans can be tentatively blocked as soon as the teacher knows who are to be members of the class group and can study their backgrounds. Frequently such a unit plan can be developed during the summer vacation. Other experience-units will become evident as appropriate to pupil needs and interests as the group works together, and block plans for them can be developed as teacher and pupils approach the completion of the unit on which they are then engaged. On occasion, environmental circumstances—happenings in the community—stimulate interests which are real and important but previously not indicated. In such instances you and your student may need to do some rather intensive block planning for the week at hand and a more complete and thorough job of planning over the following week-end.

Daily planning, on the other hand, except for emergencies should not be done until the work of the current day is completed. Tomorrow's plan can only be the result of today's work if attention is to be given to the *developing* needs of individuals and to the particular way in which the learning situation is unfolding. To anticipate all the situations which may arise and to know just how rapidly a group will progress are difficult for the experienced teacher. How much more so for the beginning student teacher! The student who is asked to prepare daily plans a week in advance is given an almost impossible task, if that task is to be considered in light of changing circumstances. True, he can estimate what he thinks might happen, but that estimate may prove to be a very rough approximation and rather far from what will really be needed by teacher and pupils as the time for the use of the daily plan approaches. This being the case, the plan has little value beyond that of the block plan, which provides a view ahead. In fact, if the student does not see the need for re-doing his plan as he approaches the work of the day, real disservice may be done to both the pupils and the student teacher.

When the foregoing is recognized and daily plans are made

at the close of each teaching day, in some cases it may be difficult for the student to prepare his next day's plans in time for their review by his cooperating teacher. Such a problem usually does not arise with the unit plan, but it is generally recognized that it is desirable for the cooperating teacher to give the student teacher the benefit of his reactions to all types of plans. This provides greater security for both the cooperating and the student teacher and makes for more effective team teaching.

What can be done if it is necessary for your student to make his daily plan late in the day or early evening? When he is learning to plan and when he first assumes responsibility for making the initial draft of a day's plan, you may find it time-saving in the long run to meet with him on several evenings to go over plans. As he becomes more skilled, a short conference just before school in the morning may meet his needs and yours. There are definite advantages to a late afternoon or evening conference, however, which should be taken into account. Foremost among these is the opportunity afforded the student teacher to reflect on suggestions which you make and on needed changes in his plans. A night to "sleep on" proposals discussed helps to make them a part of the student and thereby adds to his security. When there is an interval between the discussion of the proposed plan of work and its execution, this time can be used by the student to make more thoughtful and less hurried revision. When time cannot be found between the completion of work today and its resumption tomorrow to go over daily plans together, it is better for the student to plan for tomorrow after he has taught today and not have the cooperating teacher's critical suggestions than to prepare daily plans several days in advance of their use. You can feel reasonably secure in safeguarding the interests of your pupils because of the initial daily planning which you have done with the student teacher and his understanding of the over-all plans outlined in the experience-unit. Every effort should be made, of course, to give the student teacher the benefit of your experience and to help him improve his planning and thereby his teaching. Knowing the daily plan, as well as the unit plan, contributes to more effective cooperative teaching.

How Should Plans Be Evaluated?

The foregoing discussion, in recommending the desirability of the student teacher having your reactions to his plans, suggests that plans be evaluated. How can this be done to provide the greatest possible learning for the student? Approaching the problem negatively, it is evident that a letter grade or such a comment as "good" or "excellent" really contributes little to the student other than to give him a general feeling of well-being and satisfaction that he is getting along all right and will probably receive the desired grade in student teaching. True, a feeling of security and confidence is important, but it is even more important that he know *why* he is doing well. This requires that more than a general statement be made on plans.

A plan, it will be recalled, is a projection of a teaching-learning situation. It thus represents what is thought to be a good learning experience for children or youth. It would seem appropriate, then, to test its soundness in terms of the educational principles held to be basic to a good learning experience. Does the plan take account of the purposes of the learners? How meaningful to them are the projected activities? Is provision made for individual differences? These and other educational principles then become the bases for evaluation of any plan, unit or daily. They are the guides which the student will have had in mind in preparing the plan. Evaluation becomes a further check to see wherein these principles governing learning are adequately taken care of, where they have been negated or neglected, and where by modification of proposals they can be further implemented.

The accepted educational principles become a common basis of understanding between you and your student in evaluating any plan. From time to time the student may find it useful to indicate in the margin of the plan the ways in which he has tried to take account of these principles. This can be done quickly by numbering the set of principles and indicating the number of a principle at the appropriate place in the margin of the plan. Where you concur in the student's judgment and have no suggestions to make, it is then unnecessary for you to make further comment. Where you question the implementation of a principle or have a suggestion for its development, a comment can be made

in the margin. This affords you and the student a point of reference to be discussed in a conference on the plan, and at the same time provides the student teacher a written notation for his consideration after the conference.

The following material illustrates one of the first daily plans which a student teacher had taken complete responsibility for preparing. The cooperating teacher, through his comments, was trying (1) to help him improve the plan at critical points and (2) to suggest the educational principle which caused the question to be raised or the suggestion to be offered.

Cooperating Teacher's Comments	Student Teacher's Plan
	First Day's Work on Pottery—October 10
	1. Informal discussion of pottery
A helpful way to relate this new experience to the children's everyday living	a. Have children name and discuss types of pottery seen that day. Bring out various uses of pottery: Bricks Dishes Sculpture Terra cotta
How meaningful will this be? Would it mean more after *the children have worked a bit with clay?*	b. Give short survey of history of pottery, using pictures and some actual pieces.
If you use step "b", would children be more actively involved if, instead of giving the interpretation, you guided their reactions to pictures and pottery pieces? (I note you plan to do this with modern pottery—item 1c)	1) First forms—Indian, primitive Hand built Wide mouths—simple forms Little variety in shape Used both as objects of utility and art 2) Egyptian Originated glazes Exported pottery in large quantities 3) Assyrian—lack of stone necessitated buildings of clay bricks or tile; cast to form relief decoration 4) Greek Perfected art Types of vases
How much do we know about what the children	c. Have children characterize some modern pieces of pottery. (I will have at hand both sculpture and dishes.)

want from this experience? Perhaps following step 1a we should talk about what they would like to make. Many will suggest objects in which coil is basic. But shouldn't we provide for those wanting to make something else?

Will the children need help on how to store their work?

2. Give demonstration of coil method.
   a. Build small bowl and show how to make it cylindrical, conical, or convex by simple adjustment of coils.
   b. Demonstrate use of template.
3. Have children take cardboard template and clay and try simple bowl (for candy or nuts).

   Give needed help and note problems.
4. Suggest continuation of work on bowls next period.

This way of evaluating plans provides positive suggestions, gives the student teacher the reasons which lie back of the proposals, guides him in developing or using educational principles as guides to his action as a teacher, and helps him to see planning, teaching, observing, and evaluating as aspects of a unified whole governed by the same basic principles.

What Is the College Supervisor's Role in Planning?

Many factors condition the college supervisor's part in the planning process—how well he knows the school situation and the pupils, how frequent and intimate his contacts are with the student teacher. In most situations the college supervisor, or other members of the college staff, can be important resource persons in helping the student with the unit plan made in advance of working on it with pupils. They can offer suggestions as to the nature of activities and help the student locate resource and instructional materials.

To help with daily planning means rather close association with the student teaching situation. The college supervisor who really knows the pupil group and your educational point of view and way of working, can help the student with plans for the next day. More often, however, the cooperating teacher can give better help with them. The college representative can be thought of as a person "on call" to assist with problems of planning on which you and your student teacher would like help. He

may also volunteer suggestions as he observes the student at work and points to ways in which planning could help overcome evident difficulties. He is primarily concerned with the growth of the student teacher and stands ready to help with daily planning in ways that cooperating and student teacher feel will make a sound contribution.

How Does Planning for the Student Teacher Relate to Planning for Children or Youth?

Your complete role in the planning process is fivefold. Three parts of this role relate to work with pupils. First, there is the planning which you do independently so as to bring added insight to the joint planning of the experience for learners with your student teacher. Second, your plan and the one developed jointly by you and your student teacher may be practically the same, or new ideas which seem more promising leads may emerge from working together. Because of the part which pupils should have in planning their experiences, the plan which you and your student-colleague have developed undergoes a third stage when you, the student teacher, and the pupils cooperatively plan the work. Again, the plan resulting from pupil participation in planning may or may not differ very much from that which you and the student teacher have blocked out. This completes the cycle of planning the experiences of children or youth.

The other two aspects of your role in the planning process relate to planning for the experiences of your student teacher. Your student is also a learner for whose learning you carry a major responsibility. The experiences to be provided for the student teacher must be thought through as carefully as the experiences for children or youth are projected. There is need to picture the over-all goals of the term or year, to block out the experience-units of the student teacher, and to think through the more detailed steps in the work of the student for any given day. The first aspect of planning for your student teacher is parallel to the first for guiding children or youth—to outline how you will guide the student's experience. The second aspect

is similar to the third for pupils and for the same reason—because the student teacher, as any other learner, should share in planning his own experience—and involves planning with the student the experiences he is to have. Some of this planning may be made a part of the plan for children, as suggested in the following excerpt from a cooperating teacher s plan.

Teacher's Plan for Children	Suggested Activities of Student Teacher
3. Plans for visiting silk mill a. Make necessary arrangements: 1) Letter to mill manager 2) Parent permission 3) Cost b. Clarify questions to be asked or answered through observation. c. Decide on best time for visit. d.	3. Plans for visiting silk mill a. Make preliminary visit to mill. b. Contribute suggestions to guide class in planning trip.
4. Visit to the silk mill	4. Visit to the silk mill a. Record children's comments during visit. b. Note individual interests. c. Be responsible for small groups.

While there are five aspects of planning with which the cooperating teacher is concerned, they are interrelated and have as a central focus the learning experiences of boys and girls, children and youth.

Does Planning Require Too Much Time and Effort?

Planning does take time and careful thought. This cannot be denied. It is, however, time well spent if it means a more valuable educational experience for learners. It is time that should be budgeted to teaching because time thus spent deals with envisioning teaching and contributes to the more effective and

satisfying handling of the teaching-learning situation. But the most careful and well-conceived plans are of limited or even little value as guides to the overtired teacher or the teacher who has been so completely absorbed in his professional activities that he is dwarfed as a person and citizen. To have enthusiasm and competence as an individual, a citizen, and a teacher requires the development of skills in planning that make it possible for the individual to live a balanced life.

The task is to build ways of planning that contribute to effective teaching and at the same time allow for exploration of the world of affairs of which teachers are and should be a part, and for maintaining the enthusiasm, buoyancy, and vitality of good health. It is the responsibility of the college and the cooperating teacher to help the student find ways of planning that make all-round growth possible for him; ways of planning that he will continue to use throughout his professional career.

10

HELPING STUDENT TEACHERS GUIDE LEARNING ACTIVITIES EFFECTIVELY

While you can contribute much, as is shown in other chapters, to the student's preparation for the broad responsibilities of the teacher, you are in a particularly favorable position to help the teacher-to-be to become increasingly effective in his guidance of learning experiences. When you are helping the student to study particular pupils in your classroom, to prepare for assuming a given responsibility for teaching some or all the youngsters for a period of time, you have special opportunities to analyze his observations of your teaching and to evaluate his own progress, that of pupils, and the teaching-learning situation itself. Separate chapters of this book are devoted specifically to each of these opportunities to help with the process called *teaching* or *guiding learning*. The present chapter is designed to serve three functions: (1) to show the relationship of the kinds of help you regularly provide a student to his developing and improving ability to teach; (2) to analyze the teaching process itself as a basis for suggesting additional kinds of assistance students need from you; and (3) to consider ways of helping a student teacher during the time when he is actually assuming responsibility in the guidance of learning.

CONCEPTS BASIC TO HELPING STUDENTS BECOME EFFECTIVE GUIDES OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Teaching is a continuous cyclical process of studying learners, planning, guiding, and evaluating learning activities. When teaching is viewed as such a process, it is clear that helping student teachers with any one of these steps is, in fact, helping them with the whole process of guiding learning.

The Basic Purpose for Studying Learners Is to Insure Effective Guidance of Their Activities

The real reason for studying individual learners is to be able to provide each one the best guidance possible in terms of his particular needs, interests, and abilities. Similarly, the real reason for studying a group of boys and girls is to be able to plan with them and guide them in learning activities appropriate to their group needs. It is important in your work with students that you continually assist them in seeing the relationship between their study of learners and their planning and guidance of them. As you work with student teachers in gathering basic information about individual pupils, you should of course include helping them in studying cumulative records, observing behavior, visiting homes, conferring with parents, and learning to know neighborhoods from which pupils come. But unless your guidance also includes assisting them to relate the information gathered to their work with individuals in the school situation it falls short of achieving its basic purpose. Therefore, you are actually helping students to learn how to guide activities effectively when you are working with them on their study of learners.

Planning in Advance Is an Indispensable Part of Effective Teaching

A teaching plan is a guide for action in the teaching situation. To prepare an adequate plan the teacher must project himself into the teaching-learning situation and analyze what may reasonably

be expected in terms of the learners involved and the purposes to be achieved. He then proceeds to consider specific activities for both teacher and pupils which seem to him, in light of what he knows, to contribute best to the achievement of goals. In this context he gives attention to the learning environment, both emotional and physical, including materials and equipment, and to the points where he may need to provide careful guidance of an individual, small groups, or the whole class.

As you help your students with the kind of planning suggested above,[1] you are obviously helping them become more effective in their guidance of learning activities. When together you are projecting the teaching-learning situation, and are analyzing what may or what should occur, you are dealing in a very specific way with a student's possible behavior while in direct contact with boys and girls. Certainly some of the most significant help you provide students in developing and improving their abilities for teaching is offered when you help them with their advance planning.

The Student's Observation and Cooperative Analysis of Your Teaching Is Basic to His Developing Ability to Guide Learners

One of the roles played by a college student in your classroom is that of observer. The source of much of the student's learning about teaching is in his observations of you as you guide learning activities. In assisting your student to profit most from his observations you can do several things: (1) help him build background to increase his awareness of what goes on in the classroom; (2) help him in recording what he sees; (3) discuss with him possible interpretations and reasons behind what he observes; and (4) encourage him to consider alternatives which might have been employed in the particular situation.[2] It is clear that when you do such things, you are helping the student to examine what is involved in actual teaching, to consider various ways of achieving the same ends with learners, to appraise relative values of specific techniques and procedures, and to build his own concepts

[1] For a more complete discussion of planning, see Chapter 9.
[2] See Chapter 13 for a further discussion of observation.

of what his behavior ought to be when he is assuming responsibility for the guidance of learning.

Evaluation of Learners and Teaching Serves to Identify Important Qualities of Effective Teaching

In the preceding paragraph it is suggested that when you assist students in their analysis of what they observe you do as a teacher, you are helping them build a concept of what their own behavior should be when guiding learning activities. There are two other kinds of evaluation which make a contribution to the student's skill as a leader in the learning situation—evaluation of pupil progress and of the student's own work. Each of these is discussed in a separate chapter (Chapters 11 and 15). The purpose of mentioning them at this point is to call attention to the significant way in which your work with students on evaluating either their own progress or that of pupils is related to what actually happens in the teaching-learning situation.

You cannot help students adequately to appraise the growth of pupils in relation to goals without consideration of the experiences provided in assisting youngsters to progress toward their goals. Also, if the chief purpose of evaluation is to determine next steps which should be taken by pupils or by those responsible for their guidance, then it is clear that discussions of pupil progress must of necessity include concern for the selection, organization, and guidance of their learning activities.

Similarly, helping a student teacher to appraise his successes and his inadequacies, his strengths and his needs, requires that you and the student clarify what should have or might have been done in the teaching situation and refer to evidence on what actually did happen. Therefore, every time you and the student engage in evaluating his work or his progress as a teacher, vou are also assisting him in determining what he should do while guiding learning and how he may build the necessary skills and abilities to do those things.

The discussion to this point indicates that practically everything you do with your student relates to helping him become increasingly effective as a guide of learning activities. However,

explicit and exact consideration has not yet been given to what teaching really is or what a teacher actually does while guiding learning. From an analysis of the teaching process itself, it should be possible to deduce particular kinds of help prospective teachers may need, to locate special points of difficulty for student teachers, to improve your own and the student teacher s ability to diagnose problems in a teaching situation, and hence to discover still other ways of making the best possible contribution to the student's growth in ability to guide learning effectively.

DEFINITIONS OF TEACHING: WHAT IS INVOLVED IN GUIDING LEARNING?

It is exceedingly difficult to define the teaching process itself, yet this is something that must be done if student teachers are to be helped to improve their ability to teach. How do you define teaching? This would be a good question to discuss with college students who work with you. The likelihood is that you, college students, and their instructors can quickly agree on some general statements of what teaching is. For example, you may say teaching is whatever a teacher does to facilitate learning by pupils, using different words to express the same idea. But such a definition needs careful delineation before it can be used as the basis for providing specific help to students. The purpose of this section is to suggest some ways of analyzing the teaching process in sufficient detail and concreteness that the analysis may serve as a basis for helping a student in his role as a guide in the teaching-learning situation.

Specific Skills and Techniques Appropriate to Particular Kinds of Learning Activities May Be Defined

As you and your student teacher go about your work from day to day, your conversation and behavior imply a definition of teaching. For example, note the following excerpt from a record of a student teacher's work with a small group:

> Gene's group is settled in a small circle around Miss Gray. All but two of the children have their books with them and are trying to find the page (written on the board).

Miss Gray: Just close your books. We had one new word in yesterday's story and it belongs to a family. Can anyone tell me what that word is?

On the blackboard: tell, well, sell, bell, and fell

Miss Gray: Who can tell me all those words?

Each child takes a turn in sounding the list of words.

Miss Gray: Now let's get down to business and read. On page 28, read until you find out what Jack thought. Read silently.

Obviously Miss Gray needed guidance in helping children develop reading skills. When the cooperating teacher and Miss Gray sit down to discuss the "teaching" she did on that occasion, no doubt they will talk of guiding learning in specific rather than in general terms. They may discuss ways of helping children build skills in attacking new words independently; specific kinds of questions which best motivate or give purpose for reading; particular ways of checking comprehension and finding difficulties children are having; and so on.

The same may be said for almost any teaching experience your student has, whether it be guiding an American Problems class in high school or an arithmetic class in the sixth grade. In other words, there are some specific skills for helping learners in each area of experience and at each age level. There are techniques and skills unique to teaching in language arts, social studies, mathematics, science, the arts, or health and physical education. Similarly, there are specific skills and techniques appropriate for working with six-year-olds and others suitable for sixteen-year-olds. In one sense, then, your definition of teaching may refer to these specific techniques and skills in particular areas of learning or with particular age groups.

It is important in your work with student teachers to provide them with much help on such specifics. This is the kind of help that is probably easiest to give. For one thing, most of your students will have had considerable study of such specifics before they come to your room as student teachers. The secondary school student teacher has had a course in general methods of high school teaching and, in all probability, a specialized course in teaching the subject which is his major and which he is very likely teaching in your classroom. In these courses, he has had direct experience in observing good teaching and in analyzing it

with his advisers. This, along with his other college class experiences in reading, listening, discussing, and reflecting on methods of teaching, results in his building a conception of what a good teacher does in guiding learning in the specific area of his concern. Similar experiences are in the background of the elementary school student teacher.

Another reason why it is rather easy to help students with specific skills and techniques in particular instances is that you have available an abundance of professional literature treating these specifics in detail. Consider for a moment the volume of material available on the teaching of reading or the teaching of social studies in the elementary school; the teaching of algebra or general science in the secondary school. Consider also the teachers' manuals which accompany textbooks in various areas of the curriculum and the bulletins and guides put out by the school district in which you are teaching. Neither the student's theoretical background nor the abundance of literature on specific techniques for teaching, however, will adequately meet the student's needs in working on his own implementation of ideas encountered in classes or in books and manuals. What will help is your very direct attention to such specifics in the real situation.

How is this done? As indicated earlier, you do it when you and your student consider in advance alternative ways of helping learners with identified problems. You do it when you later analyze exactly what was done and why it was or was not effective. You do it when you discuss tentative plans for teaching and encourage the student to test his ideas of how he might provide specific guidance in a given situation and later examine the evidence from the testing. You are doing it when both of you read an article or chapter of a book, or view a film, and then consider the merit of suggestions made, isolating some for experimentation in the classroom. You do it when you demonstrate specific techniques in your own teaching and help the student analyze his observation of them.

In a volume such as this, with its focus on helping you as a cooperating teacher, it is not possible to deal in detail with every content or experience area and with all levels of the school program. Therefore, it would seem appropriate to ask whether there are other ways of defining the teaching process so that the defini-

tion would be pertinent to teaching in any area or at any level of the school program. Possible answers to this question are considered in the following pages.

Operations Which Teachers Perform May Be Defined

In recent years several attempts have been made by educators to answer the question "What is teaching?" by a detailed analysis of what a teacher actually does while guiding learning. One such analysis made by Raths is extremely helpful at this point. Five categories of operations are defined in this analysis of what a teacher does while teaching:

1. *Teaching: The Clarifying Operations*—When we help others to see more clearly what they prize and cherish, what they abhor; what they believe and what they reject as false; what they worry about, how they are thinking and planning, what they are doing, then—teaching is going on.
   a. CLARIFYING THROUGH REFLECTING—To reflect to the student his expressed idea, attitude, value, feeling or problem is one way to clarify. The student may "hear" for the first time what he has said or done, or felt. To repeat the expression in several ways serves the same general purpose.
   b. CLARIFYING THROUGH DEFINITION AND ILLUSTRATION—To ask for definitions of key words and phrases, or the central idea, is another way of helping to clarify. To ask for illustrations, examples, analogies, are other helps in the clarifying process.
   c. CLARIFYING THROUGH PRESENTATION OF APPARENT INCONSISTENCY—To present disconcerting or challenging exceptions to what has been said, to contrast it with something previously said and a bit out of line, to relate it to other accepted knowledge which suggests something different, are further resources in clarifying.
   d. CLARIFYING THROUGH COMPARISON OF LIKENESS AND DIFFERENCE—To write on the blackboard the student's expression, to write beneath it other related expressions, and to ask the student to point out likenesses and differences, is another possible aid in clarifying.
   e. CLARIFYING THROUGH QUESTIONING OF UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS—To reveal or to question the reasonableness of some of the seemingly *necessary* assumptions underlying the stu-

dents' expression, is a further possible aid in the clarifying process.

f. CLARIFYING THROUGH ANTICIPATION OF CONSEQUENCES—To project the student's expression into a scene of future action, or into the past, or into other places, and to ask for probable consequences, may also aid in illuminating the student's expression.

g. CLARIFYING THROUGH QUESTIONING OF MEANINGS—To ask such questions as: Is this what you mean? Is this another way of saying it? Is this the idea? Do I understand you to say . . . ? Am I correct in this interpretation . . . ?—these may help clarify. Here the teacher is not saying again what the student has said. The teacher is interpreting the student's expression.

h. CLARIFYING THROUGH LOCATING POINTS OF DIFFICULTY—To say: How can I help you? Where are you stuck? What seems to be the difficulty? What's getting in the way? What help do you need?—these questions may help to locate points of difficulty and hence aid in clarifying.

i. CLARIFYING THROUGH INQUIRY INTO WHO SHOULD BELIEVE—To ask if a statement is intended to show a personal preference or judgment, or whether it is intended as an expression which all, or nearly all, people are expected to endorse, is one way of helping to distinguish an attitude or prejudice from a warranted belief.

j. CLARIFYING THROUGH RELATING FEELINGS TO BEHAVIOR—To accept the student's feelings, to show that he has a right to have them, to respect those feelings, and then to inquire as to the appropriateness of the behavior which seemed to express those feelings, to ask for suggestions as to other possible alternative behaviors, to raise questions about the relations of the various alternatives, are aids in making action more clear.

k. CLARIFYING THROUGH SUMMARIZING A SERIES OF STEPS—To summarize the logic of a student's presentation: If this is true, and this is true, then—you think—this conclusion must follow? If you do this and this and this, you then think the goal will be achieved?—this outlining of procedures is often an aid in clarifying the planning and thinking processes.

l. CLARIFYING THROUGH RAISING QUESTIONS OF PURPOSE—To ask the students: What are you trying to demonstrate? What's the purpose back of this? What are you striving to accomplish? How is this related to any purpose you may have? Where are you headed with this idea?—these are ways of helping to make purposes clear.

m. CLARIFYING THROUGH QUEST FOR ORIGINS OF EXPRESSIONS—To raise a question or make a suggestion about the possible origin of a student's statement; to ask if the family, church, school, gang, neighborhood, movies, radio, etc., are the "parents" of the idea, may involve a story of the development of the statement and hence aid in the process of clarifying.

n. CLARIFYING THROUGH RAISING QUESTIONS OF VALUE—To say: Of what value is this proposal, or idea, or activity? How is it better than what now exists? In what way will life be better if the idea is acted upon?—is to raise questions of value which can lead to further clarification.

2. *Teaching: The Show-How Operations*—When we help others "to learn how" to do certain things, we usually do it by showing how. This category is largely restricted to motor-perceptual types of learning. When we help young people to know how, to practice how under competent supervision, to learn how with appropriate skill, we are teaching. Again, the question whether the teaching is good or poor must be reserved until we are clear about what we mean by teaching.

a. SHOWING HOW THROUGH TEACHER-DEMONSTRATION—A skill or procedure is demonstrated by the teacher. She carries through all of the operations, and may carry them through several times. She asks for questions. She may ask some one or two students to come forward and carry out the operations under her guidance. The emphasis is upon demonstration preceding a requirement that all students carry out the series of operations.

b. SHOWING HOW THROUGH THE USE OF EXTERNAL TEACHING AIDS—Sometimes the teacher makes use of movies, slides, local authorities, or specially skilled students to show how certain operations should be carried forward. The emphasis is again upon the operations needed to be successful in the skill.

c. SHOWING HOW THROUGH THE MEETING OF DIFFICULTIES—There are many occasions when students meet difficulty in carrying forward the required operations. They then want "to know how" to do the thing which has them blocked. Here, showing how is directly related to a specific difficulty rather than to the whole series of processes.

d. SHOWING HOW BY THE PRESENTATION OF ALTERNATIVE METHODS—Sometimes a particular student has difficulties with a particular method. If there are alternative methods, teachers sometimes indicate these alternatives, demonstrating each, and thus providing opportunity for choice. Show-

ing how is done in such a way that students see that no one way is the only correct way.

3. *Teaching: Security-Giving Operations*—Ideational or conceptual learning, sometimes even motor types of learning, involves so much challenge to the personalities of students that, to facilitate learning, teachers must carry on operations which contribute to feelings of security in the challenging situation. Students must feel free to learn, to change; they must have some emotional assurance in a situation which carries a challenge.

   a. SECURITY GIVING: MEETING THE NEED FOR BELONGING—Children want friends and want to be friends. They want to be members of a group. To comment on their singularity, to emphasize differences, to send them from the room, to isolate them in any way, deepens the need. To be friendly to students, to encourage friendliness, to provide opportunity for choice of seating or committee membership, to welcome children, to indicate they are needed and missed when they are absent, these are operations which tend to satisfy the need to belong.

   b. SECURITY GIVING: MEETING THE NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT—Children need to work on things which interest them. They need recognition for their efforts, praise for their accomplishments. They need a knowledge of status and progress. They need encouragement when effort goes unrewarded, and they need all this, not in terms of an absolute standard, or in competitive terms, but in terms of their efforts. Life is much more worthwhile when our time, our efforts, and our resources are put to use on things we think important. When we carry on like this, we are meeting the need for achievement.

   c. SECURITY GIVING: MEETING THE NEED FOR ECONOMIC SECURITY—Minimizing the role of additional fees in school life; aiding students in improvising alternatives suitable to the situation; providing economic resources without advertising the need; reassuring those who think this handicap can never be overcome—these operations are directed toward meeting the need for economic security.

   d. SECURITY GIVING: THE NEED TO BE FREE FROM FEAR—To protect children from physical violence and threats of violence; to protect them from the morbid worries associated with superstition, death, illness, ghosts, and other supernatural manifestations; to protect them from fears of failure, fear of embarrassment, fears of losing; to offer help, to reassure, to protect when protection is needed; to give them courage to go ahead—these are operations which tend to reduce fear.

e. SECURITY GIVING: THE NEED FOR LOVE AND AFFECTION—Some children are denied the love and affection ordinarily associated with wholesome family living. To accept children, to show them that you like them, to be hurt if they are hurt, to take a great interest in their lives in and out of school, to be sensitive to their dress, their plans and hopes, their worries, all these are ways of meeting a need for love and affection.

f. SECURITY GIVING: THE NEED TO BE FREE FROM GUILT—We can act in ways to make children ashamed of themselves. We can set up standards almost impossible of achievement and chide them for lack of accomplishment. We can be horrified at their activities or their language or their dress. Or we can show them that guilt is only appropriate if choices were known; that where we don't know better, guilt can hardly enter. We can help people see how much they are like our most respected pillars of society. We can help them to minimize past behavior in every way but as experience to enable them to make better choices in the future.

g. SECURITY GIVING: THE NEED FOR PERSONAL INTEGRITY IN SHARING—In our society we indoctrinate children in the belief that all men are created equal; that no man should push others around; that every man should have something to say of a proposition which concerns him or affects him. Sometimes, however, we tend to doubt, to be suspicious of, to disbelieve, to judge as inferior, to ridicule, or to deny participation to students. We reject them as contributors; we let them know that they are to have nothing to do about making plans or policies. When we accept students, invite them to share, listen to them, respond to their ideas, we are acting to meet the need for sharing.

h. SECURITY GIVING: THE NEED FOR UNDERSTANDING AND FOR KNOWLEDGE—Providing a permissive atmosphere where students may raise the questions which bother them; helping them to acquire a knowledge of what causes many of our more persistent problems; taking very seriously questions which nominally are called "naïve" or "unsophisticated"; showing the relationships between world and national and local problems; at times reassuring some that answers are available even though not in the possession of the teacher—these are operations which encourage the search for knowledge, the asking of more and more questions, the resolution of conflict and inconsistency.

i. SECURITY GIVING: CONTROLLING CONFLICT SITUATIONS—Where open and perhaps serious conflict is impending, the teacher provides security through techniques of diversion;

techniques of saving face; of recognizing values in opposing positions; techniques of postponement, of referral. We say that "she handled the situation very well" when she carried through these operations in a way which protected the personalities of the students without sacrificing too much the other values involved. When students come to feel that they are not sticking their necks out, that they will be treated courteously if opposition develops, we say that operations are being carried on which tend toward feelings of security.

j. SECURITY GIVING: CONSISTENCY OF BEHAVIOR—If the teacher is erratic in her behavior, now praising, then punishing the identical act; is scrupulously fair on some days and manifestly unfair on others; inordinately strict sometimes and very lax at others; stressing one objective very much today and almost indifferent to it tomorrow, children tend to feel insecure. They feel more secure when they can make predictions of behavior; when they know what to expect, when they feel that they understand the teacher. Operations that are consistent from day to day tend to make for security, if other criteria for security are also met.

k. SECURITY GIVING: THE TREATMENT OF "ERRORS" OR "MISTAKES"—When teachers regard school as a place to learn, rather than a place to recite what some author learned; when children come to feel that what they say is the raw material of learning; when they understand that they will not be ridiculed or embarrassed for their efforts to express their concerns; when teachers take students' expressions as valid statements for inquiry—these operations tend to make for security in the learning process.

4. *Teaching: Culturally Unifying Operations*—We believe in individual differences; that experience tends to make us uniquely personal individualities. We have no definite *unity* that we are indoctrinating for. We want to provide more opportunities for greater unity to emerge from group interaction. Our public schools have stood for the idea of respect for other creeds, other philosophies, other systems of government. Some differences are to be prized; some tolerated; others frowned upon. If, around the central idea of freedom and liberty, greater unity can be a product, then teachers must strive to carry on operations which may have this effect.

a. UNIFYING THE CULTURE THROUGH ELICITING FREE EXPRESSION—The atmosphere is permissive. Students are free to express their attitudes, their values, their prejudices, their worries and concerns. The teacher recognizes the right of everyone to have those attitudes which seem consistent with one's previous experiences. Where the observer of the

teacher notices restraint, repressiveness, loud "silences", intolerance, uncritical acceptance or uncritical rejection, these are signs of an absence of permissiveness. Where the teacher definitely elicits statements of belief, value, etc., she is carrying through an operation which may result in greater cultural unity around the idea of *free discussion.*

b. UNIFYING THE CULTURE THROUGH THE FORMULATION OF PROPOSITIONS—Many statements are of the sort: "I hate radishes." The evidence to support, refute, or throw doubt upon this statement is somewhere within the anatomy of the speaker. When statements like this become the center of discussion, the situation often degenerates into more expressions of like on the part of others. If, however, these types of statements can be transformed into ones to which publicly available evidence may be applied, then we are operating in a way which may produce greater cultural unity. Not "I dislike Chinese," but perhaps, "The Chinese people who have similar advantages are inferior to us in terms of intelligence quotients." This can be studied and we can have reference to facts which are or may become available to the public.

c. UNIFYING THE CULTURE THROUGH AN EXAMINATION OF BELIEFS—When a statement is in the form of a belief, i.e., can have evidence applied to it, we must then allow evidence to do its work. The facts, pro and con, must be applied. The statement must be studied for its consistency with what we already know in the field; it must be studied in terms of its probable consequences if it is acted upon. This process of examining the probable validity of a statement, in an atmosphere of freedom, can lead to greater cultural unity.

d. UNIFYING THE CULTURE THROUGH AN EXAMINATION OF DIFFERENCES—The same collection of facts may lead different people to different and perhaps opposing conclusions. We expect teachers to clarify these differences; to help illuminate the significance of the differences; to suggest when the differences may be of great importance and when they probably have little or no effect on the solution of a problem. These operations of clarifying differences among individuals within a group may contribute to the unification of the culture around the idea of freedom of belief.

e. UNIFYING THE CULTURE THROUGH RECOGNITION OF PRESENT LIBERTIES—When students have gone through the process of presenting their ideas, feelings, values, etc., when these have been transformed into belief-type statements, when evidence has been sought and freely exchanged, when differences are recognized and evaluated, teachers may further cultural

unity by bringing to the consciousness of students the very processes which they have just experienced. The idea of freedom is most often prized when it is threatened; it can be prized in its realization, and greater cultural unity may be a product of this consciousness of participating in freedom's values.

5. *Teaching: Enriching Community Living*—In the previous section emphasis was given to providing for greater cultural unity around ideas of freedom and liberty. Sometimes we waste much time striving for unity, on the ground that a particular problem cannot be tackled until all think alike, when in fact our particular views may have little significant influence on the way we would solve the problem, or upon the share we would assume as our responsibility. Enriching community living means the carrying forward of operations which help to solve community problems. Very often we can be of differing beliefs, and yet work together to meet the requirements of the problem situation.

   a. ENRICHING COMMUNITY LIVING THROUGH CHOOSING COMMUNITY PROBLEMS ON WHICH TO WORK—Where the content of the teaching is the recitation of the reading, or the teacher's sayings; where principles or generalizations or skills are not applied to the solution of local common concerns; where school is a preparation for some future life and relatively unconcerned with present living—then there is no enrichment of community living. Where the teacher carries on operations which yield statements of concern to groups of students; where she exhibits concern for the formulation of problems which will make the community a better place to live; where lists of problems may be formulated for choice on the part of one or more students; where this involves some action in the community—we say that operations are being carried on which tend toward community enrichment.

   b. COMMUNITY ENRICHMENT THROUGH CONTRASTING DESIRES AND REQUIREMENTS—Teachers can carry on operations which serve to distinguish between what we would *like* to have happen in a problem situation and what is *required* to solve it. Problems have their requirements, and of every proposal we can ask if it is relevant to those requirements, or if it gets in the way of those requirements. Sometimes the values of people determine how a problem will be solved. Where values bring conflicting solutions, teachers show the impossibility of unanimously approved solutions. Where a particular statement of value may be of very little or no influence, this can be shown to be no obstacle to working together in solving the problem. We are dedicated to the idea of living and working together within an atmosphere of

freedom. We demonstrate the worth of this ideal by *actually working together on common problems.*

c. COMMUNITY ENRICHMENT THROUGH PLANNING SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS—The operations involved here are those ordinarily associated with the planning processes: Defining the problem, delimiting it, getting purposes clear, projecting solutions, anticipating difficulties, recognizing available and needed resources, collecting the pertinent, valid and reliable data, deciding upon one or more courses of action, proposing plans for the beginning and the further carrying on of efforts to solve; making clear the requirements of the problem in its entirety; organizing the attack upon it, providing students with choice of jobs, suggesting due dates and dates for progress reports. When these operations are being carried on, then we say that teaching is taking place.

d. COMMUNITY ENRICHMENT THROUGH ACTION ON THE PROBLEMS—Students sometimes say that they only "talk" about problems, they don't have the chance to work on them. To this extent school is without the vitality of life. The plan for solving a problem is a plan of *action.* It is tested *in action.* The plan then must be acted upon. The teacher raises questions of how it shall be carried out; what order of events will take precedence; who will have certain responsibilities; how to proceed with individuals in the community who may be involved; how to secure permission for certain behavior if official permission is necessary. Then this time schedule is put into operation.

e. COMMUNITY ENRICHMENT THROUGH ACTIVITIES WHICH TEND TO INFLUENCE THE SOLUTION OF LOCAL PROBLEMS—Operations may be carried forward which are not directed at the total solution of a problem. Teachers and students may want to protest a proposed solution; may want a hearing on it; may want to write letters to those who are concerned in the solution; may want to publicize local conditions which need official attention. Where the observer sees a relationship between these activities and the probable improvement of life in the community, he may say that teaching is going on.[3]

Using an analysis of teaching like the one just presented, your work with the student might center on helping him improve his ability to perform the various operations called for in specific situations. For example, if it seems to you and the student that

[3] Raths, Louis E., "What Is Teaching?" (From an unpublished manuscript. With permission of the author.)

pupils are failing to understand ideas related to a problem on which they are working, you might begin to examine in what specific ways the student tried to help pupils clarify those ideas. Discovering that the student's help was inadequate may lead directly to your providing him with specific suggestions on how to help pupils clarify ideas—suggestions implied in Raths' analysis of this operation of the teacher. Or, suppose the student while guiding learning activities seems to intimidate pupils, causing them to be afraid of making mistakes or to fear the consequences of their actions or comments. In such an instance, you might consider with the student the specific things he can do to give security to pupils. Suggestions on this operation can begin with Raths' analysis and continue with one that you and your student may make with respect to the particular situation.

In helping your student to view his own operations as a teacher, an analysis like Raths' may serve as a basis for comprehensive study of his total work with pupils. In this sense, it may be used as a guide for planning specific techniques and activities for teacher and learners and as a basis for evaluating teaching. The analysis suggests the content of teaching which might be examined in your conferences with your student teacher. It suggests a different approach to helping your student build skill in guiding learning—an approach which is useful in all areas of the school curriculum and at all levels.

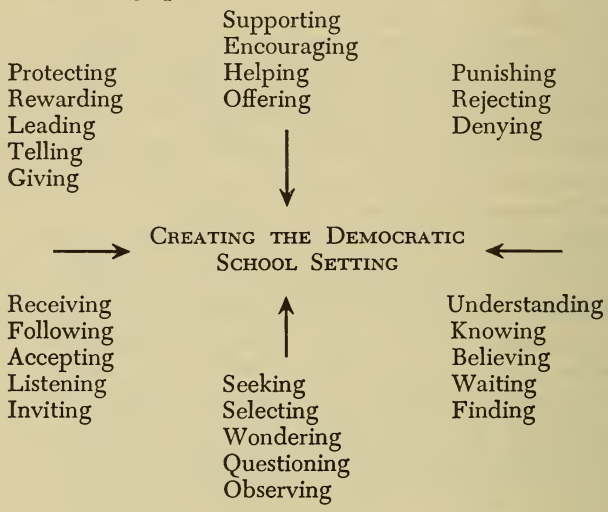
The Teacher's Role May Be Seen as a Group of Interrelated Activities

Still another way of looking at what a teacher actually does in guiding learning is suggested in an analysis, presented below, made by Miel and Brogan in *More than Social Studies.*

These authors suggest that one of the chief functions of the teacher is creating a democratic setting for learning; that a teacher may play any one of several roles in a given learning situation. Sharing and discussing such a diagram with your student teacher may suggest to him the many choices which are available to a teacher while guiding learning. In considering how to respond to an individual pupil or to a group, your student may find it helpful to keep in mind that he may support or reject, listen or

tell, give or receive, and plan his behavior accordingly. Or, in examining what he has already done in a teaching situation, he may ask did I deny when I should have given, did I help when I should have waited.

Something of the complicated and challenging nature of the teacher's role in creating and maintaining a democratic classroom setting may be illustrated in graphic form:



In the foregoing diagram are suggested some of the ways for relating which are open to the teacher at the important point of exercising his best judgment at any given time.[4]

Many of the skills in teaching and certainly much of the art reside in the teacher's ability to make the right decisions at the moment in guiding learning. No doubt you have already discovered that your student teacher needs help in knowing when to hold back information and encourage learners to seek answers; when to deny requests and for what reasons denial may be justified; when to tell learners what to do and when to help them achieve their own direction; when to accept behavior and when to reject it. Helping your student recognize roles he seems to be playing while he is guiding learning activities and assess the appropriate-

[4] Miel, Alice and Brogan, Peggy, *More than Social Studies*, p. 371. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.; Copyright, 1957, by Prentice-Hall, Inc.

ness of his selection of roles is another way in which you can suggest a definition of teaching which is concrete enough to serve as a guide. When you take the next step by helping the student see specific ways in which he can improve his behavior in assuming any role or combination of roles, you are assisting him directly with his ability to guide learning activities effectively.

What a Teacher Actually Does While Teaching Can Be Verbalized

The final analysis presented here to show what a teacher does while in direct contact with pupils in the guidance of learning draws upon suggestions made in the previous analyses but attempts to put into action-oriented words a summary of what a teacher is actually doing when he is teaching. It is intended to suggest the kind of description which may be made of teaching behavior. You and your student will find it helpful to arrive at a descriptive definition which expresses your own concept of teaching. This one, which is a description of what a teacher actually does while guiding learning, may assist you in that task.

The teacher is arranging, organizing, and managing the learning environment and activities.

For example: The teacher places materials and equipment in functional positions; modulates his voice in terms of the demands of the situation; controls time so that there is freedom from unnecessary pressure and rushing; sets the limits of freedom of movement and selection of activities; formulates grouping of pupils for specific purposes; supplies directions when needed; or assists pupils in setting desirable expectations for their achievement.

The teacher is listening and responding to learners; supporting, encouraging, respecting, and reassuring pupils.

For example: The teacher listens to what pupils say to discover their problems as a basis for helping them, to gain cues as to their feelings, to appraise their understandings; responds to pupils' questions, to their voiced and unvoiced feelings, to the challenge they present by facial expression and gesture, by ignoring or by offering help of one sort or another; the teacher praises work well done, accepts the point made by a particular learner, suggests a specific job for another, or voices confidence in a pupil or group verbally or in action.

The teacher is stimulating, motivating, and challenging learners.

For example: The teacher posts a newspaper clipping on the bulletin board, shows a film, calls attention to a problem, places new books in the library, deliberately asks questions, administers a pre-test, accentuates selected activities; the teacher is critical of problem solutions reached by an individual or a group, admits difficulty in working out a situation and expresses a need for help, disagrees with statements of informational character from pupils or books.

The teacher is presenting, informing, suggesting, and explaining ideas; helping pupils to clarify ideas.

For example: The teacher shares information he has which pupils could not acquire for themselves; presents and explains through sample, illustration, and discussion a new process in arithmetic, a different way to locate biographical material, techniques for making expository writing more interesting; raises questions of authenticity, of supporting evidence, and of consistency; checks pupils' understanding as revealed in illustrating or citing examples; urges pupils to present their ideas on a topic or problem in concise form for testing comprehension.

The teacher is helping learners to relate, unify, generalize, and evaluate their learnings.

For example: The teacher points out the association of one process with another or one idea with another; provides opportunity for learners to practice skills, to organize and summarize their information around central themes or problems, to generalize; assists individuals and groups in appraising what has been accomplished, helps them set up standards of achievement, helps them select and collect valid data and interpret them, helps each pupil with his personal self-evaluation by conferring with him, developing purposes and plans for his work, and checking with him on his accomplishment.

The teacher is analyzing, measuring, and evaluating learners' growth and activities; observing, discovering, and thinking about learners' growth and activities.

For example: The teacher prepares and administers reliable and valid instruments for collecting data on pupil progress, uses a variety of techniques for observing behavior, recording significant anecdotes; interprets evidence of growth objectively in relation to individual pupils; systematically appraises the quality of experience pupils are having and the role he is playing in guiding activities; involves pupils appropriately in evaluation of both their own progress and the learning experiences they are having.

The teacher is improvising and dealing with the unexpected.

For example: The teacher knows what to do and does it with dispatch when emergency arises, remaining stable; is flexible in modifying plans when the unexpected comes; can suggest alternatives when what was expected does not happen; perceives immediate problems accurately and deals with important facets while permitting the insignificant to pass by without undue attention.

Describing specific skills and techniques, the operations that a teacher performs while guiding learning, the various interrelated roles assumed, and what a teacher actually does while teaching —these have been suggested as useful ways of defining the teaching process. It should be noted, however, that what is included in any description of *effective* teaching depends upon the particular educational principles held by the teacher. For example, judgment of the *appropriateness* of specific skills and techniques to a learning situation is based largely upon what the teacher believes about learners and learning. Decisions on what a teacher *should* do, what role he *should* assume, in a given situation depend upon his concept of how pupils' progress toward goals is best facilitated.

EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES AS GUIDES TO ACTION IN TEACHING

All teachers employ educational principles in making decisions about their behavior in guiding learning activities, although some teachers do not make them explicit nor are they consistent in the way they apply them from time to time. One of the dominant goals in your work with prospective teachers is to help them clarify principles, particularly to extend and deepen their understanding of what principles mean when applied to the guidance of learning. As has been pointed out in previous chapters, it is important that you share with your student the principles that guide your work and provide opportunity for discussing and testing principles held by the student. Using educational principles as criteria against which to analyze the guidance of learning activities provides a significant opportunity to help your student teacher to relate principles to behavior.

The ways two different teachers expressed the basic concepts underlying their teaching are shown in the following excerpts

from their complete statements. The first is in the form of questions that may be asked about any teaching-learning situation.

GUIDES FOR EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES

1. Is the experience directed toward goals and purposes which are recognized and accepted by the learner as worth while?
2. Is the experience meaningful for learners in that
   a. It relates to their purposes (see 1)?
   b. It is appropriate to their maturity levels?
   c. It relates to their past and to other current experiences?
3. Does the experience provide for balanced interaction between the needs and purposes of learners and the demands of the environment?
4. Does the experience provide for the uniqueness of each individual?
5. Does the experience lead to understanding of fundamental concepts and generalizations?
6. Does it provide for a measure of success and challenge?

The second teacher preferred to summarize the generalizations from findings in psychology (both developmental and educational) that he accepted as basic guides to his work with pupils. From his list the following are representative:

EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES

1. Each learner is unique.
   a. Each has his own unique pattern of capacities and grows at his own rate (pace).
   b. Each is unique in the experience background he brings to a situation.
   c. Each is unique in self-concept (evaluation of capacities, feeling of personal worth, unique ways of satisfying basic needs in order to maintain feelings of self-respect).
2. Each learner both develops and reacts as a whole.
3. Readiness for learning is conditioned by background, motivation, maturity.
4. The individual learns in terms of his purposes.
   a. Learning is always, to some extent, selective.
   b. What is learned is determined by the meaning the learner sees in a situation in light of his purposes.
   c. Motivation, for the most efficient learning, involves helping learners set purposes they recognize as worth while—purposes that are directly related to that which is to be learned.

5. Maximum transfer occurs when learning takes place in situations similar to those in which it is (or will be) used, and when pupils are helped to generalize from their experience.
   a. Transfer requires conscious effort to draw parallels between what the learner is doing in school and related out-of-school problems.
   b. The individual responds to a new situation in terms of the general conclusions reached in an old one.
   c. Generalizations take on greater depth and added meaning as they are used appropriately in new and varied situations.

6. That which is not used tends to be forgotten.
   a. Retention is affected by the meaningfulness of the situation in which the learning took place.
   b. Meaningful repetition aids in retention.

In helping your student view his work as a teacher, you may together analyze the teaching-learning situation in terms of the way in which one or more of the educational principles was implemented. For example, using either set of guides, the situation might be explored with reference to the principle relating to the central role of the learner's purpose. Why in this particular instance were the pupils so restless? What meaning did the work have for them? How did it relate to their world of people, things, and events? Was Billy really telling us that what we were trying to do had little meaning for him when he said, "I don't see why we do all this?" What might we have done to provide more adequately for the principle relating to the significance of the learner's purpose? Would this principle be more fully implemented if the youngsters had a share in planning their experiences cooperatively with us? How would we go about this? Seeing what educational principles mean for action is one way of helping your student teacher look at teaching and grow in understanding of its meaning and many facets.

Generally, you provide this kind of help to a student teacher by conferring with him about his plans for teaching, his observations of your teaching, or your observations of his guidance of pupils in learning situations. Are there ways in which you may help your student while he is actually engaged in the teaching process? It is to this question that attention is given in the final section of this chapter, which follows.

ON-THE-SPOT HELP TO THE STUDENT WHILE HE IS TEACHING

A point of major concern to many cooperating teachers is what can be done to help the student teacher when he is teaching and gets into difficulty? Do you ever have questions like these: Should I interrupt the student if he is teaching and makes a mistake? How far should I let the student stumble before I catch him? Is it all right if I take notes while the student is teaching? Should I take care of "discipline" matters even though I am not teaching? What should I do if pupils continue to turn to me for help when the student is "taking over"? Such questions reveal good feelings on your part. They show that you are concerned with the student's security and self-confidence as a teacher. They demonstrate your desire to have the student experience the full responsibility of guiding learning activities. But they are none the less troublesome if you are unable to work out with the student constructive ways of dealing with them.

To suggest possible solutions to such problems is the intent of this section. As is true of so many questions about teaching, specific answers depend upon factors (people, ideas, and things) in the setting. Feelings play an important part, too. However, there are some general suggestions which can be used as guides and which will assist you in arriving at solutions with your student teacher. These general suggestions are here organized around three ideas: (1) establishing the student as a professional colleague, (2) co-teaching from the beginning, and (3) sharing with the student the purposes and uses made of your records of his teaching.

Establish the Student as a Professional Colleague

In Chapter 7 it is suggested that you take several concrete steps in getting ready and beginning work with your student teacher. If you take advantage of those suggestions, you will have gone a long way toward establishing your student as a colleague by the time he arrives to begin work with you. Sharing with him on a professional level what you believe, the major

purposes you are trying to achieve with learners, and something about yourself as a person helps him to know from the beginning that you respect him as a member of the profession, though he is a novice. Helping him to learn as much as possible about the group and individuals in it gives him a basis for feeling at home with them and seeing opportunities to participate. His early understanding of the school program and the school community contributes to his self-confidence. Specific planning with your pupils for the student's coming and for his participation helps to build positive expectancies in their minds. Determining with the student what he may expect as his first day's experience allows him to come to the situation with the security that comes from "knowing what is permissible and expected."

It should be noted that all of the above suggestions, elaborated in Chapter 7, are based on an assumption that you will have some opportunity to meet and work with your student prior to the first day he comes to your classroom as a student teacher. You should do everything within your power to see that this is possible. One of the tragedies in the experience of many students is their entrance into a classroom where the people, activities, and environment are total strangers to them and where they interpret the atmosphere as one of hostility toward them, or at least one lacking in a warm welcome. When this happens, it takes a long time and many good experiences to break down the initial unhappy and destructive feelings and reactions. By contrast, the student who has had an opportunity to wear off the rough edges of insecure relationships with you, in contacts prior to beginning his work in your classroom, feels that he knows you and therefore is that much more at home where you are the central figure. If, in addition, he knows about the pupils and what they are doing and that they are expecting him and wanting him, he can immediately extend his good feelings toward them and expect that they already like him.

In a warm, welcoming atmosphere where people (you, the student, and the pupils) feel comfortable, pleasant introductions of those who have not previously met face to face are likely to occur without embarrassment. Because all parties in the introductions really have a background of information about one another, the chances of picking up conversation and activity with-

out any lagging, awkward period are enhanced. Introducing the student to the class must have these qualities and, in addition, should include evidence from you that here is a *co-teacher.*

But your attempts to establish your student as a co-teacher will not bear fruition unless you honestly accept him yourself as a colleague. As was previously stated, your behavior in this regard and the inferences of feelings behind your words will speak much more loudly than words themselves. How you work with him, both in front of pupils and when you are alone, during the first few days will tell him exactly how you view him and what you expect of him. This is illustrated by the exchange which took place after school the first day in the lives of two different student teachers. The first had this experience:

Cooperating teacher: This was really a bad day for me. I don't know when I have been so tired; we moved over the week end.

Student: I know just what you mean. I haven't yet got all my stuff moved from the campus out here and I have to go back there again tonight to get another load.

Cooperating teacher: I really did a poor job with that discussion on space travel. I guess I was impatient and I have to admit that I get awfully sick of hearing their imaginations going off into space. Did you think I was cutting them off short? What do you think about all this talk of space travel? What would you have done?

At this point the student brought to bear on the conversation some new information on the topic and showed enthusiasm about the discussion. They decided they would both work with the discussion the following day and the cooperating teacher said, "You will have to help me out on some of this. I'm doubly glad you came just when you did." They proceeded to make definite plans.

The second student had this experience:

Cooperating teacher: Were you taking notes while I was having that discussion?

Student: Not really, because I didn't know whether I should or not. But I did jot down something I wanted to ask you.

Cooperating teacher: What was that?

Student: Maybe you don't have time to discuss it now, but I did wonder what I would do to get more of the pupils involved in the discussion.

Cooperating teacher: Are you suggesting that only a few were saying anything?

Student: Well, no. Of course, I don't know individuals well enough to have any idea why they were restless—well, for example, that girl who kept opening and closing her desk drawer and looked disgusted. What was wrong with her?

Cooperating teacher: I don't know exactly what you mean but I feel that the discussion was very good. I thought everybody was involved and if one or two weren't, what do you expect? No teacher can control every child and everything he does.

With this comment the conversation moved from the student's question to setting up the time the student should be there in the morning and a suggestion that he should not take any notes unless he gave them to the teacher before he left the school in the afternoon.

In the first instance, the cooperating teacher demonstrated her confidence in the student and her acceptance of him as a coworker by sharing her real feelings with him, including personal reasons for them; by actually asking his help and advice; by listening to and using his comments constructively; and by planning immediately to take advantage of something special he had to offer. These things were quite reversed in the second instance. Here the cooperating teacher revealed a kind of defensiveness, a questioning of the student's right to wonder about a teaching situation as it had been perceived by him, and a disregard for real examination of her own work. There would seem to be little question about the feelings the two students took with them as they departed from their first day of student teaching. Surely the first felt respected as a professional person with ideas that had merit, while the second probably felt it would be a long time before he would raise a question about what went on in the classroom and that he was, after all, just a student.

You can lay a foundation for your later work with the student, when he will assume major responsibility for guiding learning activities, by the way in which you work during the early days. Among the suggestions which have proved productive in this regard are: (1) Turn to the student for help when it is appropriate. (2) Share your concerns with him—concerns about individual pupils, about methods, about content. (3) Openly evaluate your own teaching with him. In such ways you literally say to the student that you view him as a professional, that you respect his ideas, that you are not perfect by any means, and that you want his help. These are exactly the things you want to com-

municate to him, for they are basic to the student's building similar feelings about you—feelings that are essential when you want to make suggestions to him later. Working this way contributes to readiness for your on-the-spot help when he is taking a major role in guiding learning.

Co-teach with the Student from the Beginning

The foregoing implies that the very best way to set the stage for your helping the student while he is assuming a major teaching role is to view that role as a shared one from the beginning. In other words, once a student teacher has come into the situation, the responsibility for guiding learning activities rests not with one person but with two professional people—you and the student. The degree and nature of responsibility each of you holds will vary from one time to the next, with the probability that the student's responsibility will gradually increase and that yours will gradually decrease, but with each of you continuing to share in the teaching. There, of course, may be an exception from time to time. For example, on occasion you may agree that the student should observe, removed from the situation, to study a particular teaching-learning activity. You may also cooperatively decide at a given point that the student should assume complete responsibility, while you remove yourself from the situation and make observations as a basis for helping him with certain problems. But these should be exceptions.

You may ask: How can I do this? How can a student assume responsibility when he isn't fully prepared? Will the pupils suffer if he assumes this kind of responsibility too soon? Won't shared teaching confuse pupils, so that they don't know where authority resides? You will find your best answers to these questions as you experiment with the idea of cooperative teaching from the beginning.

The instance of the first student teacher cited, as on page 264, illustrates one way to involve the student as a co-teacher; that is, planning deliberately for his participation at points where he has something special to offer. Try this with your student. In your first contacts with him and as you study his background look for special competencies, either skills or knowledge, he brings to the situation and seek places in the learning activities

where these may be used to advantage. Plan with him how he might contribute through his special competencies to individual or group progress.

A second way to work from the beginning with the student as a co-teacher is to share your planning with him and in the process identify points at which he might contribute. For example, suppose you are planning time in the next day's schedule for small groups to work independently on projects they already have under way. Discuss with the student how the groups were formed, what their particular purposes are and the tasks to be accomplished, the kinds of expectations which you and the pupils have built as standards in small group work, and the particular role you are planning to play with specific groups the next day. (Much of this information your student already has if you had a chance to work with him prior to his joining the class.) On the basis of the student's interest and ability, select one or two specific things he might do with one or more groups and together plan the kind of preparation he will need to make for these jobs. There is no such thing as a day of learning experiences for pupils that does not provide ample opportunity for a student teacher to make a significant contribution. If you discuss your planning with him, many such opportunities will occur to both of you and plans can be made for his participation.

A third suggestion on cooperative teaching resides in spur-of-the-moment decisions which you make while you are teaching. In a setting where you know the background of the student, where relationships are based on mutual confidence and respect, and where the student is physically a part of the group while you are teaching, many occasions arise when it is quite natural for you to turn to the student with questions, comments, or invitations to participate. For example, a pupil presents some information and follows it with a challenging question. The question is one that has no factual answer but one on which varying points of view exist and can be supported. You might present your point of view and ask the student for his or you might suggest to the pupil that he ask Mr. Kline (the student). Or suppose a pupil comes to you for special help on locating a reference that will tell him certain specific things he needs to know in order to move forward with the job he has undertaken. You might say, "Mr. Kline could help you find that and he'd be glad to. Ask

him." There are literally dozens of instances every day where, if you are on the lookout for the opportunity, you can include the student as a co-guide of learning.

In this section focus is on how you may help the student while he is teaching. Perhaps it would be well to note a relationship between these suggestions on co-teaching from the beginning and your helping the student during times when he is assuming major responsibility for the guidance of learning activities. The relationship is simply this. If you work cooperatively with the student, in teaching together, from the beginning, when he begins to assume greater responsibility the chances are: (1) that he will not feel on the spot, but rather that you are joining forces with him in teaching; (2) that pupils will hold the expectation that both of you may contribute at any time and therefore will not be disturbed if you comment while the student is teaching; (3) that you will feel free to contribute while he is teaching as you encouraged him to do while you were teaching; and finally (4) that the student will expect and accept your help when he needs it during his teaching. When such a situation has been created you need not raise such questions as: Should I interrupt the student while he is teaching? What should I do if pupils come to me for help when the student is assuming major responsibility? Answers are crystal clear to you, the student, and to pupils in the class.

Plan to Share with the Student Your Records Made While He Is Teaching

It may not appear that note-taking during the student's teaching is one way to help him while he is assuming responsibility, but this is an activity in which you are likely to engage quite often. You do it in order to have evidence as a basis for discussing his teaching with him. Unless it is done in the right way and with the right purposes, the activity of taking notes while the student is teaching can, in fact, be a deterrent to the student's doing his best work. On the other hand, when relationships are good, when you take accurate records, and when you share your notes with the student for the purpose of helping him, the fact that you are taking a record may actually help the student during the time when he is teaching.

Chapter 13 presents a point of view on your taking notes while the student is teaching, makes suggestions on kinds of notes which seem to be most useful, and discusses ways of utilizing your records so that they contribute most to the student's growth in ability to guide learning. Here the point is that your skill in taking notes and using them effectively for the student's good has a direct relationship to the kind of help you give him during his teaching activities. Perhaps illustrating the point will clarify it.

THINGS YOU MIGHT DO IN TAKING AND USING NOTES WHILE THE STUDENT IS TEACHING	PROBABLE EFFECT ON THE STUDENT WHILE HE IS ACTUALLY GUIDING LEARNING
Sit in the back of the room observing what is going on and suddenly decide to take some notes.	Wonder why he is taking a special note—what did I do wrong?—why is he writing right now?
While taking notes have a facial expression which implies criticism of what is going on.	I wish I knew what makes him look dissatisfied. What did I do or not do?
Write with obvious force, underlining heavily, pressing on your pencil.	Wait till I hear this—I surely must be doing a poor job.

The foregoing suggest how you may directly affect the student teacher while he is engaged in guiding learning. What you do with the notes you take while he is teaching may also affect his work the following day and subsequently, as the following illustrations suggest.

Put your notes in your briefcase and go home with them without commenting on them to the student.	Why didn't he let me see his notes? They must be pretty bad. What is he going to do with them? How am I to know what I should do or should not do?
Show him only pieces of your notes to prove certain criticisms you are making in conference.	Why does he show me only part of his notes? Does he show me only things to prove his point? Don't I do anything right?
Include your notes in a report to the college supervisor without sharing them in entirety with the student.	Seems to me that I'm the one who ought to see the notes if I am to learn how to do a better job. I don't get any chance to discuss problems with him and the college supervisor doesn't really know what went on.

Things you might do in taking and using notes while the student is teaching	Probable effect on the student while he is actually guiding learning
Consider the contrast in the student's probable reaction when you:	
Decide with the student that you will take as complete a running record of what happens as you can so you will both have concrete material to work on in your conference.	It is sure good of him to be willing to make a record so we have something concrete to work on. Truth is that if he doesn't, by the time I come to discuss my teaching I can't remember exactly what happened.
Quietly take notes throughout the time the student is working with the class.	I'm glad he is taking notes; now I won't need to worry about remembering what I did or said. This will help in our conference.
Leave a copy with the student right away and suggest that both of you will study it before discussing it.	I know exactly what kind of record he is making. I wonder what I'd do if I could do this over—well, I can see when I study the record.
During the conference following his teaching focus your discussion on basic principles, using the data from the record to illustrate specifically and concretely incidents of good work as well as spots needing improvement.	Working on yesterday's record helped me so much to see where I might have been better. I know I'll do better today.
Conclude the conference with definite plans on what the student is going to work on next time he teaches.	I can see exactly what I ought to do. Just now when we exchanged glances, I know he was reminding me of our conversation last night. That helps.

Your records of the student's work while he is guiding learning are the bases for much of your counseling. They serve as concrete illustrations when together you are planning ways of improving the teaching-learning situation. However, the way you confer and the way you take your records carries right into the environment while the student is teaching. Your suggestions, as well as feelings surrounding them, are in the student's mind as he teaches and therefore afford a direct way of helping him during the teaching process.

This chapter has dealt with the important question of how you can help a student teacher guide learning activities more effectively. While almost everything you do with the student is for this purpose, there are certain kinds of help which are particularly pertinent to those points in the student's experience where he is assuming major responsibility for the guidance of learning. Defining teaching in different ways, making it possible to observe, practice, test, and talk about specific teaching behavior, is an important part of helping the student in his teaching activities. Establishing your student as a professional colleague and co-teacher from the beginning clears the way for your contributing on-the-spot help while he is teaching. Finally, taking complete records and using them effectively helps the student to feel confident and to make increasingly better decisions while he is guiding learning.

11

GUIDING YOUR STUDENT TEACHER IN EVALUATING GROWTH OF LEARNERS

EVALUATION is a constant part of experience. Children evaluate as they make choices and determine next steps to be taken.

Karl started to throw the paper on the playground, hesitated, then walked several yards to the trash can. . . .

I like Judy. Let's ask her to play with us. . . .

We could test Bill's theory of evaporation by . . .

Adults evaluate as they react to situations and make decisions governing their actions.

It's a better job for me, but would it be wise to have Mary change schools? . . .

If only Don would stand up for his rights. To think that a son of mine is so easily influenced. . . .

This is delicious. How did you make it? . . .

He doesn't get my vote. We need a man who . . .

Everyone engages regularly in evaluation of people, things, and events as they relate to the self and to others.

EVALUATION DEFINED

Evaluation is an integral part of the work of the teacher, of parents, and of learners themselves. Each is faced with the need and responsibility of appraising his own work, and parents and teachers are concerned with the progress of the children and youth with whom they live and work. How can evaluation be a process that contributes to desired learnings? How can learners be helped to focus on the nature of their growth and achievement rather than on receiving a good grade, being promoted, pleasing parents or teachers? How can evaluation procedures which create fears and insecurity be avoided? How can the real purposes of evaluation be achieved?

You need to consider questions like the foregoing with your student teacher. Because answers depend upon a conception of the purpose and nature of evaluation, you will find it useful to begin your cooperative work on evaluation by exchanging ideas about what it means and what its essential characteristics must be, if it is to affect learning positively. Three basic ideas related to evaluation are discussed in the pages that follow: (1) the purpose of evaluation, (2) the quantitative and qualitative aspects of evaluation, and (3) the learner's role in the evaluation process.

The Purpose of Evaluation Is to Promote Growth

First, the central purpose of evaluation is to promote growth, not simply to pass judgment. While a judgment may be involved in making an evaluation, such judgment is for the purpose of determining the extent and quality of progress being made toward objectives which have been clearly defined with the learner. Evaluation gives teacher, pupils, and parents information basic to selecting further learning activities, to planning next steps for the individual or the group, and to stimulating efforts as progress and strengths are recognized and difficulties and limitations are identified. When this is the central purpose of evaluation the learner is helped to set goals and to work intelligently toward them. Evaluation becomes an integral part of his learning experience and its meaning is directly related to the

work he undertakes. Evaluation is not something external to his ongoing activities, something which stands alone and has value only in and of itself.

Evaluation Is Both Qualitative and Quantitative

A second basic idea to be considered with your student teacher is that evaluation and measurement are not synonymous. To obtain a measure of growth does not mean an evaluation of that growth. For example, the height of a very tall person may be accurately measured, but this in no way evaluates that height. Whether the evaluation is that made by Alice in Wonderland—"It is a very good height, indeed!"—may very well depend upon whether the individual is attending a parade or trying to buy a dress. What the measurement means and how the known fact is to be evaluated depend upon the goals sought. This suggests that whenever reliable instruments of measurement are available they should be used, but that results should be interpreted in light of the goals sought. If this is done, standardized tests and other such measures will not become ends in themselves and pupil growth will not be evaluated in terms of scores or measures as such. Nor will it be expected that all pupils should reach a particular score or decile rating. The measures will be at hand, but they will be viewed in light of the goals sought and of other factors affecting the situation.

These other factors affecting the situation must be considered in the evaluation process. This is demonstrated by the physician who in treating a patient uses the thermometer as an instrument for measuring temperature. The reading may be quite exact and suggest a normal recording. The patient, however, indicates a cold feeling. Other factors must be considered along with the measure of temperature in diagnosing and recommending treatment. In like manner, in evaluating the growth of learners and making suggestions for their further progress, it is necessary to consider both the measurable elements and those non-measurable factors which affect the individual child or youth. The human organism reacts as a unit, and growth in one area is affected by development in others. Ability, mental and physical

health, feelings, work habits, home background, standards and values held, human relations—these and many other factors affect the progress which the individual can and does make. Measurable elements must be interpreted in light of such factors. Adjusting to and cooperating with others, expressing and appreciating ideas and feelings through various media, solving problems in daily living independently and through group discussion and action, developing standards and values to govern action—these, too, represent important kinds of growth for which the school assumes some responsibility. Not objectively measurable, they represent some of the most important aspects of growth of both children and youth. One of the challenges facing every teacher is to find ways of making subjective evaluations in these qualitative areas as exact and objective as possible.

Evaluation, to promote the full growth of the learner and to make maximum contribution to learning experiences, must be both qualitative and quantitative.

Learners Share in Evaluation of Their Progress

To contribute positively to individual growth, evaluation must be a cooperative process in which the learner takes an active part. It must not be something done *to* a person; it must be something in which he shares. It is generally agreed that an individual learns in terms of the meaning a situation has for him; he learns that to which he responds and he responds in terms of his purposes and values. When evaluation is something that is done to the learner, his purpose can be little other than to please a teacher or parent, to get a good grade, or to "get by." Only when the pupil shares in the evaluation of his progress does it become an integral part of his learning experience and of the work that he is doing. Only then does he see evaluation as a step necessary to furthering the work in which he is engaged and to making intelligent decisions regarding next steps in that work. Only when children and youth are actively and responsibly engaged in the evaluation process do they develop the attitudes and skills basic to making evaluation a functional and useful part of their living.

THE PROCESS OF EVALUATION: SETTING GOALS

When evaluation is thought of as the process of determining the extent and quality of progress being made toward purposes clearly defined by learners and teachers (and parents), the first step is that of clarifying the goals or values to be reached. In fact, the key word in "evaluation" is *value*.

Most student teachers need help in taking this first step. They are not sure just what levels of achievement may be expected and what areas of growth are most significant for particular pupils. You can help your student teacher in this first step in evaluation by considering together: (1) how the goals or values sought determine which skills, knowledge, and attitudes need to be developed and in what degree; (2) how pupil goals and those of the teacher are related; (3) how meaning is added to goals when they are stated in terms of behavior; (4) how children and youth can be helped in setting goals and values; and (5) what goals and values you are seeking to help your pupils achieve. Working with the particular learners with whom you and the student are associated in terms of the values and goals you have identified as important, your student teacher learns how to take the step of clarifying the goals or values to be reached.

Goals Determine Which and in What Degree Knowledge, Skills, and Attitudes Are Needed

Skills, attitudes, and knowledge are of little worth in and of themselves. They have value only as they are useful in achieving desired goals, only as they help the individual to realize his purposes. Even so basic a skill as that of walking takes on meaning and has value for the very young child only as his developing organism creates needs to explore his world, to get to the parent whose attention he seeks, to use his body as a necessary means for its development. Similarly, the nature of the computational skills valued by the child and teacher in the elementary school are contingent upon the goals sought. If value is placed upon memoriter mastery alone, both child and teacher may value ability to repeat the multiplication tables without error. If, on the other hand, the goal is to use the multiplication facts in deal-

ing with everyday situations which call for their use, evaluation of growth will be in terms of ability to use multiplication facts accurately in solving problems. To take another illustration, building good human relations and positive attitudes of cooperation become important goals as children and youth seek the help of others in some achievement, strive to satisfy needs for "belonging," try to persuade a parent to grant a request, or endeavor to cope with a non-cooperative peer when working on a joint project. The goals or values sought determine which knowledge, skills, and attitudes need to be developed and why.

To help children and youth set goals, then, becomes a first responsibility of the teacher. Such goals serve both as guides in developing the learning experience and as a necessary first step in the process of evaluation, which is an integral part of learning.

The Teacher's Wider Vision Helps Learners Develop Increasingly Better Purposes and Values

The crucial role which the learner's purpose plays in the learning process makes it necessary that some *common* purposes be recognized and understood by both teacher and pupils. This does not mean, however, that the teacher, as the responsible guide of pupil experiences, may not have in mind goals and values in addition to those jointly held. Two factors make it necessary that the teacher have in mind both immediate and long-range goals; both goals and values which the learners recognize and those which they are not yet ready to identify. First, children and youth may be unaware of their real needs and the values they ought most to seek. For example, the youth who sets as a goal the ability to use leisure time profitably in reading widely may in reality be in need of using such time to learn to mix socially with his peers. It becomes the responsibility of the teacher to recognize the real need and to help the individual to see it and the values toward which he should work in peer relationships. Only as the teacher senses this need can he help the pupil to become aware of it, to include it among the goals which he desires to achieve and in the evaluation of his progress.

The second factor which suggests that the teacher must rec-

ognize long-range goals and values not yet identified by learners is the responsibility which the teacher has for helping children and youth set increasingly better purposes and values toward which to work. An able group of sixth-graders responsible for the school paper may at first be concerned only with written material that deals with an "exciting" or "interesting" news item or story and is accurate grammatically. Later, through guidance, a goal which the teacher has had in mind for some time, the use of "the press" to mold opinion, may become a real objective of the group. What is involved in writing so as to persuade, the essentials of sound propaganda, and factors that make for "exciting" and "interesting" reading become important goals. New criteria are set up as guides in writing for the paper and as values to be used in judging material submitted. In addition, these criteria may become the basis for evaluation of the individual's growth in ability to express himself effectively. They are goals recognized and accepted by the pupils as they move forward in their work—goals and values recognized because the teacher had these goals clearly in mind and was sensitive to pupils' readiness to understand and accept them.

For every learning experience it is important that some goals be jointly recognized and accepted by teacher and learners. That teachers see ahead to other goals that give direction to the work is equally important. Most significant of all, however, in setting goals and values to be used as a basis for evaluating progress is the teacher's role in helping learners widen their horizons and set new and better purposes. The art of teaching lies in knowing when individuals and class groups are *ready* to recognize and understand new values and purposes.

Goals and Values Have Added Meaning When Stated in Terms of Behavior

Stating goals or values in terms of behavior contributes in two ways to making evaluation a meaningful learning experience. First, when stated in terms of desired behavior the goal points to what is expected and the kind of evidence that will show whether it has been realized. For example, when values related to cooperative group behavior are stated as . . .

Points out weaknesses or limitations of a proposal

Offers counter proposals when in disagreement

Abides by group decisions after pointing out disagreement

. . . . . .

then bases for evaluation are clearly identified. Evidence can be gathered by learner and teacher which will show whether the individual behaves in the manner indicated and under what circumstances. The progress he has made and his further needs in the area can be identified.

The second advantage lies in the meaning the goal or value has for the learner. Just what is sought and what it means in terms of action are clear. Goals become tangible items toward which pupils can work, items which they want to achieve because the need for them is understood.

It is important, of course, in stating values in terms of behavior that they be stated by learners in *their* terms. For example, fourth-grader Howard who is working as a clerk in the school store may identify his needs in this way:

I need to add columns of 9's faster and without mistakes.

I need to write faster and more clearly on the sales slips.

These are among the new goals set by Howard as he evaluates his work as a clerk, reflecting on the line of waiting children when he took time to write clearly and add accurately so that the "bookkeepers" could make their record from his sales slips. Both are values which have meaning for him and on which he is ready to work. With his teacher he can set up a plan of study designed to help him achieve new skills.

Learners Must Be Helped to Set Both Individual and Group Goals

Howard's experience illustrates one way in which an individual child sets goals and values toward which he needs to work. It suggests how, with teacher guidance, the individual reflects on his part in a group experience to discover his competencies and his limitations. Goals and values are identified and plans made for working to achieve them. Later, Howard's progress toward realiz-

ing his goals will be evaluated and, on the basis of the results, new goals determined.

Children and youth have personal interests and needs which may have little or no direct relation to what the group is doing at the time. They may be feelings—"I wish Judy liked me more," "I'd like to be on the first team." Or, they may be personal shortcomings which the individual has experienced on a number of occasions—"Why are my suggestions to the class usually dropped like a hot potato?" "How do you know so much about the campaign, Hal? I wish I had some facts so I could defend what I think." Or, individual needs may grow out of curiosity about something or be related to ambitions—"What shall I do with my free time . . . ?" "I sure would like to know how it works . . ." "Do you think I could ever write well enough to become a writer?" These are illustrative of the many personal interests and concerns of children and youth. When each such interest is explored and goals are identified, they give direction to next steps and become the bases for evaluation of progress made.

When many people have similar personal needs and interests these may become common group goals. For example, many individuals may be concerned about issues involving decisions as to "right and wrong," and the group may undertake to develop a code of moral values through a study of their firsthand experiences involving moral choices or through a study of current issues in juvenile delinquency. Or, the problem of juvenile delinquency or the current bond issue for a new recreation center in the community may arise directly within the class situation. Goals are identified as pupils clarify and delineate aspects of the problem to be studied and raise the questions for which answers are sought. These goals, too, become bases against which to evaluate group progress and individual growth.

Common Goals of the School Program May Serve as the Basis for Determining Individual and Class Goals

While the particular goals of significance to an individual or a group must be set by them, the commonly accepted values to be sought by the school program may serve as a basis for determining special goals in a given situation. As part of helping your

student teacher understand and participate in the process of evaluating pupil growth, it is important that you explore together the broad basic values agreed upon by your professional staff and your community. Such an exploration should include careful consideration of the kinds of behavior which demonstrate achievement of these basic goals, if they are to be used for evaluation purposes. Adaptations from one formulation of areas of evaluation are suggested here for illustration.[1]

Area of Evaluation	Behavioral Goals (Illustrative Only)
Physical and mental health	Selects and partakes of balanced meals Selects clothing suitable to temperature needs Secures needed balance of rest and activity Uses social efforts to protect health Takes steps to correct physical defects Adjusts to personal limitations Makes choices and resolves conflict situations Expresses emotions constructively
Adjustment to and cooperation with others	Adjusts conduct to the demands of the situation without sacrificing basic values Gives and takes commendation and criticism in good spirit Assumes responsibility for sharing with his group by contributing ideas, materials, and time Listens thoughtfully Takes leadership responsibilities when qualified
Ability to solve problems and use the social heritage	Makes ideas clear to others in conversations, informal discussion, oral presentations Reads with skills appropriate to purpose and nature of material Observes and effectively interprets environmental surroundings Uses instruments of measurement effectively

[1] For a complete analysis of this formulation, see Stratemeyer, Florence *et al., Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living.* Revised edition. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957.

Area of Evaluation	Behavioral Goals (Illustrative Only)
	Recognizes and defines problems requiring action
	Locates, evaluates, and uses varied reliable sources
Adjustment to and control of the physical environment	Finds beauty in the natural environment and appreciates natural phenomena
	Conserves natural resources in the environment
	Uses appropriate precautions in controlling bacteria
	Uses common tools correctly to complete desired repairs and construction and cares for them properly
	Selects and effectively uses means of communication and transportation
Dealing with economic-social-political structures and forces	Uses reliable sources of information for wise purchasing
	Seeks to understand major factors affecting cost of goods and services
	Assumes work responsibilities as a member of the group
	Participates in community welfare
	Seeks to understand and to support and abide by legal protection to safeguard the welfare of all
	Uses appropriate procedures and sound principles in electing representatives
	Seeks to understand organization of government and major issues involved
Effective use of leisure time	Plans daily program to include desirable amount of leisure time
	Relates choice of activities to personal needs and capacities, and to weather and other environmental factors
Aesthetic expression and appreciation	Selects attractive and appropriate clothing
	Uses color effectively to achieve satisfying living and working conditions
	Helps to make and keep home and community beautiful
	Uses and experiments with varied media of creative expression

Setting standards to govern action	Sees the need for a personal set of values and for their consistent use in meeting problems and situations of everyday living
	Acts upon a consciously held set of values
	Applies standards to his own behavior but adjusts to standards of others based upon their age, maturity, and background

Are the learners for whom you are responsible developing a sound set of standards? Do these standards serve as guides to action in the total range of activities in which your pupils engage within and without the school? Evaluation of pupil growth with reference to behavioral goals will help you and your student teacher to guide them in developing increasingly higher standards of workmanship and of personal action.

THE PROCESS OF EVALUATION: GATHERING AND INTERPRETING EVIDENCE

To know the values and goals sought is the first step in the evaluation of pupil growth. The next step is to gather data which show the progress the learner has made toward achieving the desired goals. Your student teacher will need your help in knowing the sources of valid data, the nature of reliable evidence, and how to interpret data gathered.

Evaluation Is a Continuous and Integral Part of the Learning Process

As was noted on the first page of this chapter, evaluation is a constant part of experience. The data on which evaluation is based are always at hand. Karl was involved in the evaluation process as he started to throw paper on the playground, hesitated, and then walked several yards to the trash can. So was Sally and those who supported her or took a different position, when she said, "Working to get a community center is the business of the people who run our city—not of high school pupils." Children and youth are constantly evaluating as they make choices, determine next steps, take a stand on an issue. And their behavior, the choice made, the stand taken, the proposal for action, pro-

vide the evidence for evaluation of their growth toward desired goals.

Then, too, direct attention to evaluation is part of the learning process. Only as individuals and groups evaluate their work do they know what progress they are making toward agreed-upon goals and what changes should be made in plans. This is the meaning of Bob's proposal: "We'd better allow twenty minutes tomorrow to take the arithmetic time-test to see what progress we have made in adding quickly and who is ready to be a clerk in our store." It is what Jean has in mind when she says, "I can't work with the committee then. That is the time that Miss Holmes is going over the outline of my argument for the community center with me to see if I stick to the point this time and use sound logic. I hope I've got a really tight organization this time because I'd like my article to be used in the paper.' It is what lies back of the use of examinations, self-evaluation conferences, cooperative planning, and special assignments as ways of gathering evidence of pupil growth.

Evaluation Should Be as Objective as Possible

When change in behavior is recognized as the real test of learning, and the evidence of growth is found in behavior, it is possible to work toward objective evaluation. The first step is taken when the values and goals sought are stated in behavioral terms. Growth in ability and willingness to work cooperatively with others, for example, takes on meaning when such behavioral goals as the following are stated:

> Gives and takes commendation and criticism in good spirit.
>
> Assumes responsibility for contributing to his group by sharing time, ideas, materials.
>
> Makes pertinent, well-timed contributions.
>
> Recognizes and helps to relieve tension.
>
> Respects individuals and interprets their responses with regard for their background, problems, feelings, standards.

But even these statements descriptive of behavior involve subjective evaluation when the behavior of individuals is analyzed. How should "in good spirit" be interpreted? What was the real

nature of the tension? Was it correctly identified by the pupil and did his action really help to alleviate it? Questions such as these underlie any interpretation of cooperative behavior by an individual and those working with him. Often they are matters of subjective judgment. In fact, many of the areas of growth with which teachers and learners are concerned are of such a subjective nature.

The various aspects of growth, however subjective or objective, must be evaluated and every effort made to work toward the gathering of objective evidence. Subjective evaluation becomes increasingly objective when specific evidence is available—what was said and done during the period of tension, what the individual did, and what group action resulted. When the specifics of the situation are reported, others looking at the evaluation have some notion of the evidence upon which it is based and can agree or disagree with the interpretation made. This is clearly illustrated in the diverse reactions of a group of visitors to the response of a third grade child to the teacher's query, "Why do we sleep with our windows open?" The immediate response of the child was, "But, don't you know why we do, Miss Ware?" To some of those observing, the response suggested childish impertinence. To others it suggested fine human relations and understanding between pupils and teacher and a kind of teaching in which teacher and children worked together on a problem rather than teaching in which learners answered questions asked by a status person. Which interpretation was correct? To be sure that either reaction was entirely accurate, it would be necessary to know other things about the situation. However, concrete illustration does provide important data for interpreting any evaluation made. It is possible for those reading the evaluation statement to agree with the interpretation or to offer another.

A Variety of Techniques Contribute to Gathering Evidence on Pupil Progress

No attempt is made here to discuss the great variety of techniques that may be used to gather evidence on pupil progress.

Rather, a few fundamental procedures have been selected for consideration: observing and recording behavior, conferring with individuals, using projective techniques, using tests and examinations, analyzing concrete material produced by pupils.

LEARNING TO OBSERVE AND RECORD SIGNIFICANT INCIDENTS AND BEHAVIOR. Each individual is behaving all the time and no single person is capable of observing, much less recording, all behavior. Despite this limitation and the fact that each observer perceives in a situation those things that he is ready to see, careful observation of children and youth in a variety of situations is one of the important and productive ways of gathering specific evidence on learners' growth. What learners say and do as they work in small and large groups, what they say and do in the individual conference, what they do when they are alone, provides evidence.

What is significant to record is not always easy to determine. Both what to record and how to record it require a skill that develops through practice. As your student teacher records anecdotes, compares them with those that you make, and studies the use to which they are put, he will grow in the needed understanding and skill. He will be helped in this process by keeping three things in mind.

First, behavior relating to all aspects of growth must be considered in any comprehensive plan of records—data regarding health, social relationships and competence, ability to deal with environmental factors and forces, use of leisure, mental characteristics, aesthetic responses, attitudes, and values.

Second, records should be specific, reporting exact behavior and enough of the setting surrounding the behavior to give those using records the facts necessary for a correct interpretation of the incident. The dynamics of behavior in and out of school, games selected, things said in informal conversation, all contribute to understanding and evaluating pupil growth.

Third, the full significance of an incident or a behavior can be determined only *after* the event or action and at a time when the incident is reflected upon in relation to what followed, to its meaning in terms of previous behavior and incidents recorded, and to the goals sought. For example, Jane's suggestion that was

well-timed and helped the group to move ahead in their discussion may be an important incident to record in her record —it relates to an important needed area of growth and the evidence is specific. To report a similar behavior by Bill may be quite unnecessary at this time because of other recent like recordings. Or, to take another illustration, the notation made when angry Paul closed his book with a slam may not need to be recorded as a permanent part of the record, since Paul's reactions in subsequent trying situations suggest that the particular episode was not characteristic behavior.

These three factors point to the value of making initial notations in a tentative form. Placing a single comment or incident on a 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 note pad is a useful way to hold notations for later review. Each such notation may be filed in the appropriate pupil's folder or in a card file in which each learner's name is recorded. The recordings relating to a given learner can then be reviewed and studied periodically, possibly every two or three weeks, and those incidents judged to be significant evidence of the nature of growth, whether it be progress or retrogression, can then be made part of his permanent record, as discussed on pages 297–299.

A few illustrative recordings may be of help if you and your student teacher are beginning work together at the opening of a school year and you do not have such notations on hand. Illustrations, of course, will be more meaningful if they relate directly to the pupils with whom the student teacher is working.

KENNETH 10/17
Broke wheel of truck he was pushing. Started to put it in cupboard and slipped broken wheel in his pocket.

BRENDA 1/9
Cocoons brought in from park. "We mustn't put them in a warm place, because they'll hatch out before they're ready and die. They hatch 'cause it seems like springtime to them."

NEIL 9/16
"We're using this (new book) now, Joan. Besides it isn't good to grab books. You sit down and look at 'Bobo Dee'

or some other book. When we're through we'll give you this one."

RUTH M. 12/5
"I think we should include something about Hanukkah in our Christmas plans. After all, it means a great deal to some of the children."

KEITH 3/25
Through very effective bulletin board display called attention to factors in a community to be considered in implementing Supreme Court decision regarding desegregation. Illustrated with local and contrasting community. Pointed comments re obeying law and effective "change over."

Your student teacher will need help in making such recordings under two quite different sets of conditions. The first will be early in his work with you, when he is carrying a supporting role but is not yet assuming major responsibility for guiding learning. This is a good time to encourage him to record incidents that he observes and thinks may indicate significant pupil growth. As he makes such recordings, compares his notations with yours, this teacher-to-be-grows in ability to take the first step in gathering evidence of pupil growth. He will need to increase his ability to identify significant evidence and to record and at the same time observe and participate in classroom activities. He will then be ready to make similar notations when he is carrying major teaching responsibility and you are working in a supporting role. He will have learned from his earlier experience, when you were in the major teaching role, that while teaching there may be little opportunity to do more than record the pupil's name and a word or two to hold the incident until the more complete recording can be made during a later free period or at the close of the day. Now he will find what it really means to make such notations while giving major attention to guiding the unfolding learning experience. The first statement in each of the illustrations is the abbreviated comment made while teaching; the second is the more complete recording made later in the day. (Italics added to provide more complete picture for reader.)

DONALD 11/13

Prom—religious holiday

Called attention *of* committee planning *senior* prom *to fact* that *suggested* date fell on *a* religious holiday for two *of the* seniors. "*I still think* we should try for another date *and* I'll say so when we make our report *to the class.* We talk about respecting people and their beliefs. Let's do it."

First time Don *has been able to* stand by his beliefs against group opposition.

SALLY K. 11/7

Election—color words, propaganda

. . . have you really examined *the* speeches? Have you checked on what *they are actually* saying on the basic issues? Let's take a major speech *of* each candidate and examine it for issues, logic of argument, *and* use of color words."

GEORGE 5/12

% in favor of bond issue

"*But the* reported figures give a false picture. Probably 75% of *the* people *who were* at *the* meeting last night did vote for *the* bond issue. How many of *the* total voter group in *our* community were at *the* meeting—that's the catch."

This and the other steps in recording evidence of pupil growth require insight and skill. These come with practice and increased understanding of learners as your student teacher works with them and receives guidance from you in interpreting behavior.

ACTION AND IDEAS EXPRESSED IN INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCE SUGGEST PROGRESS. The individual conference was referred to above as one source of behavioral evidence. Such conferences may have widely varied purposes—an informal exchange of greetings or ideas, a conference to evaluate progress and plan further work, a time to deal with a special problem. Each provides opportunity to observe the pupil in a particular setting, to note progress which he has made in relation to selected goals, and to identify continuing or new needs.

The conference for the purpose of appraising pupil growth

contributes in a special way to evaluative evidence. Before such a conference pupil and teacher identify particular goals to be considered. Each brings to the conference materials which point to progress made in terms of the selected goals. Together they interpret these materials, note what they show by way of accomplishment, and plan next steps. This may be a two-way conference of pupil and teacher or a three- or four-way meeting including parents. The following suggests the way in which one teacher gathered evidence through the conference on evaluation.

> For example, in one fifth grade where a teacher used a scheme of periodic individual conferences, each child kept a folder marked "My Plans." In it, he recorded specific jobs he had to do in relation to goals he and the teacher had set (sometimes individually and sometimes with the whole class participating). When a child came for his conference, he was prepared to discuss what he had set out to do, what he had accomplished since the last conference, and problems he needed to work on during the next few weeks. He brought with him material evidence in each category. The teacher came prepared with evidence in the same categories.[2]

The individual conference, in addition to providing significant data on pupil progress, is an effective means of helping pupils develop desirable attitudes and needed skills of self-evaluation.

PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES, PROPERLY USED, CONTRIBUTE TO EVIDENCE OF CHANGE IN FEELINGS, THINKING, AND BEHAVIOR. Most projective techniques seek to get at the feelings of individuals and the problems of which they may not be aware and generally do not articulate. The importance of feelings as motivating factors affecting learning is well recognized. To help children and youth grow toward increasingly mature feeling-responses is one goal of education. Among the techniques which contribute evidence about feelings and other personality factors—as well as thinking and behaving—are those which ask the pupil to project himself into a situation and then indicate what he would do or what he would say. Some are very complex and should be used only by those having special preparation. Others may be used appropriately by the teacher. One of the latter group is the sociogram, which shows the interpersonal relationships existing

[2] Lindsey, Margaret and Gruhn, William T., *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*, pp. 112–113. New York: The Ronald Press Co., Copyright, 1957.

in a group. Another is the sociodrama, in which individuals are asked to role-play a situation, usually one which requires the solution of a problem. Others are "picture analysis," "unfinished stories," "incomplete sentences," and the "three wishes" techniques. Your student teacher will probably know of such procedures through his study at the college. In his work with you, however, he may have his first opportunity to use such techniques and to study what can be learned from them about pupils' needs and progress.

In discussing projective techniques with your student teacher it is important to point out the need to use such procedures with caution. They do serve as instruments for gathering evidence of pupils' thinking, feeling, and behaving that otherwise could not be secured. But the evidence must be carefully interpreted in light of other data and related factors.

TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS AS INSTRUMENTS OF EVALUATION. Your student teacher will have become acquainted with a number of tests in his college work and will have considered the strengths and limitations of various kinds of tests. His previous study will have much more meaning for him, however, as he works with you in selecting and using tests to meet the needs of a particular pupil or class group. He will come to understand what it really means to select standardized tests that evaluate the goals toward which the pupils are working; that goals must not be compromised to meet the content of the test; and that other tests should be used when standardized tests do not relate to agreed-upon objectives. When the teacher-to-be prepares and gives teacher-made tests, he will have a new appreciation of the more technically refined, standardized tests and will come to understand when it is helpful to have carefully worked-out norms and what they mean. He will also appreciate the unique values of teacher-made tests as they are designed to meet the particular goals of the teacher and pupils, and as they are used for continuous evaluation. Still further, he will come to realize the skills required in preparing good tests.

As the student teacher works with you, help him to understand when various kinds of tests may be employed, the nature of the tests, and how the findings are interpreted and used. He will need your help in developing teacher-made tests. The

limited value of recall or recognition examinations, whether essay or some form of objective test such as true-false, multiple-choice, completion, or matching, should become clear to the teacher-to-be. Tests which provide opportunity to use ideas in concrete situations are more likely to produce evidence on what has been learned. This suggests the value of situation and problem-solving tests in which the learner indicates how he would react to a situation or deal with a problem which he would be likely to meet and gives the reasons supporting the proposed action. Such tests may be essay responses, oral reactions to situations presented in an individual or group conference with learners, or direct response in practical situations. Whatever type of test is used, your student teacher will need help and practice in developing and giving the test and interpreting what the results mean in pupil progress. The results provide another kind of data on which to base evaluation of growth and development toward desired goals.

Pupils' work provides evidence of growth. Concrete material produced by learners—drawings, outlines made and notes taken to guide the pupil in an oral presentation or a discussion, autobiographies, creative expression of ideas in writing, committee reports, scrapbooks, plans for work, diaries or logs—afford another source of evidence of growth. Your student teacher will profit by being helped to understand how you analyze the products of a group of pupils to note progress made and discover needs common to a number of the learners. He should also share in the conferences which you have with individual pupils to study selected materials. Reference has already been made to this use of materials in the earlier discussion of individual conferences. For example, the younger child may keep samples of his handwriting and periodically analyze with his teacher his improvement and continuing weaknesses. Older children and youth similarly may keep a file of articles written for the school paper or of outlines made in preparation for group work. Study of these materials in conference helps teacher and pupil to interpret growth and plan next steps. Together they may select those samples of work to be made a part of the pupil's permanent cumulative record.

Cumulative Pupil Records Are Needed in the Evaluation Process

Each technique discussed above is a resource in gathering evidence of pupil growth. To provide a comprehensive picture of the learner as a developing person there is need to see the various kinds of evidence in relationship and to note changes in evidence over a period of time. This suggests the value of a cumulative record for each pupil. Only as records are continuous and cumulative is it possible to give an accurate picture at any one time and to show the nature and direction of growth. Then, too, records need to be cumulative as a safeguard in reporting negative as well as positive aspects of development. Both are needed to give an accurate picture. Kept up to date, the cumulative record shows the change in behavior and the way in which the individual is overcoming weaknesses and limitations reported at an earlier time.

It is assumed, of course, that pupil records will be used professionally to serve the ends for which they were designed, namely, to help each individual grow maximally in terms of his unique worth and ability. Student teachers often need to be cautioned about sharing information about learners. In their enthusiasm for the experiences they are having with children and youth, and the new insights they are gaining, there is a natural desire to share interesting findings. Each individual is of unique worth and his progress is a personal thing to be shared only with those directly related to and responsible for his growth. Your student teacher will come to appreciate the importance of using records professionally as he observes your use of evidence and as together you discuss this problem.

Your student teacher will have some acquaintance with your pupil records from his earlier exploration of them when he was seeking to become acquainted with and to understand the pupils. He may also have referred to them from time to time in an effort to determine pupils' immediate and long-range needs. To understand fully the nature of cumulative records and what they mean in evaluating pupil progress, he will need to share actively in contributing to and using your records.

Your student teacher will need your help in knowing which of

the recordings of behavior observed, or the samples of a pupil's work, or the evidence gathered through tests, conferences, and other techniques should be permanently filed as a part of the cumulative record. Some, as noted earlier, will repeat rather than provide new evidence; others will, when seen in perspective, be less meaningful than when originally recorded. Judgment is needed about what to retain for the pupil's permanent cumulative record.

You doubtless have worked out a cumulative record form which is practical and workable for you. Some teachers use a dual file—a card file in which the selected anecdotal recordings of observations and conferences are filed chronologically for each pupil, and a folder for tests, examinations, and samples of the pupil's work. Other teachers use loose-leaf notebooks, providing several pages for each pupil. Each page may be used for the selected evidence relating to a particular goal or area of growth. Still others prefer separate 8½ x 11 inch sheets of paper, each headed with one of the values, goals, or areas of desired growth, on which the selected items—carefully dated—are recorded in ink or typewriting. These are then filed in one or more folders. The following are illustrative of several of the last-named type of record form and show recordings made early in the school year and selected for the permanent cumulative record.

NAME: *Joan Metz* GRADE *1*

PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

Safety

9/20 Swings pair of scissors in air as she skips from table to storeroom; accepts advice on how to carry them safely.

9/27 Walks with scissors pointed down, as she comes for help.

10/18 Tells class how to carry scissors safely (class discussion re handling tools).

10/25 . . . . . .

NAME: *Frank Doane* GRADE *5*

PROBLEM SOLVING AND BASIC SKILLS

Skills in Using Resources

10/2 Read report on Jupiter—copied material from Planetarium. Criticized by children as uninteresting. Frank unable to answer their questions.

11/7 Made outline of points to be written about in report for class book on *Important Inventions.* Used three references; used index to locate material in book; took notes from which to write report. Still unable to skim reading matter to find particular parts dealing with desired information.

11/30 . . . . . .

Skills in Written Communication

9/18 Story for school paper returned because of spelling errors.

10/5 Used dictionary in checking words in a story to be sent to editor of school paper. Has started special dictionary of "My Spelling Gremlins."

NAME: *Sally Kroger* GRADE *11*

ADJUSTMENT TO AND COOPERATION WITH OTHERS

Expressing Disagreement

10/1 "You may have information I don't have, Bob, but how do you interpret these figures?"

11/7 ". . . have you really examined the speeches? Have you checked on what they are actually saying on the basic issues? Let's take a major speech of each candidate and examine it for issues, logic of argument, and use of color words."

11/9 . . . . . .

Use of and Response to Criticism

10/25 Had been active in discussion but made no further comment after a classmate said, "How could you make it work? I don't think it's a realistic proposal."

11/8 Classmate suggested that Sally check a section of her report against a particular reference. "I will if you think I should, Miss Johnson." This she did cheerfully when I supported the proposal.

12/15 . . . . . .

If you are working in a self-contained classroom organization and are responsible for the total growth of the pupil, you will be responsible for records in each area of growth. If, on the other hand, you are working in a departmentalized program or are responsible only for work in special fields, you may contribute to records that relate only to certain areas of growth. If the latter, you will need to make provision for your student teacher to see

and study the pupil's complete record and to become acquainted with the way in which the total record is assembled. However, both of you will find it helpful to see each of your pupils "whole" and frequently refer to their growth in areas related to the work which you are doing with them.

Different schools, of course, use different methods of bringing the recordings of various teachers together into a composite record. In some instances the homeroom teacher or adviser receives the items selected for the permanent record from the various teachers working with the pupil and time is provided in his schedule to record the evidence on the appropriate permanent record form. The homeroom teacher or adviser thus serves as the coordinating agent in developing pupil records. In other schools the teacher working with the child or youth in a particular instructional area assumes responsibility for developing the permanent record relating to that area of growth and receives any recorded items bearing on that area which other teachers may have noted in their contacts with the pupil. Your student teacher will be helped by becoming acquainted with the plan used in your school. If you have also had experiences with other ways of working in developing cumulative records in a program where there are special teachers or where the pupils work with a number of different teachers, your student will benefit from knowing about them.

You will probably also wish to consider with your student teacher the time given to gathering evidence and keeping records of pupil growth. While, as was noted earlier, evaluation is an integral part of the learning process and records are an important tool in evaluation, they should be a service tool and at no time require time and energy that should be directed toward other aspects of guiding learning. Data will probably not be recorded daily for each pupil. Some days many notations will be made for a single individual or for a number of pupils; other days but a few anecdotes will be recorded. The periodic review of notations made on the 3 x 5 pad will help to bring to the teacher's attention any instances where few or no recordings have been made for certain individuals over a period of time. Special attention can then be given to the action and responses of these pupils, for these individuals also have been behaving—reacting, changing, growing in some way.

Summary Evaluations Are Needed at Different Times for Different Pupils

From time to time pupils, parents, and teachers want and need to take "stock" to see what progress individuals have made. Perhaps such stock taking is needed to help learner and teacher make sound decisions regarding next steps in the learner's program of study; to share with parents a clear picture of progress made and further needs; to share with teachers who will next work with the pupil his achievements and his plans for next steps. At such times, which vary for different individuals, it becomes necessary to study the data found in the developing cumulative record to see how far the pupil has come toward achieving the desired goals. Some teachers have used descriptive statements such as those illustrated on pages 308, 315ff. to summarize pupil progress. Others have found it helpful to prepare a threefold summary record in which each of the areas of growth is reported with reference to (1) present level or stage of progress, (2) supporting evidence, and (3) recommended next steps. The first two parts of the summary will be determined as the data recorded in the permanent record form are studied. A review of these data should give a picture of the pupil's present behavior with reference to the particular value or goal sought, show the progress made by comparing early notations with those made later, and give specific evidence supporting the analysis made of present achievement. Recommendations, the third part of the summary record, are based upon this study of change in behavior. The following partial summary record is illustrative of progress in two areas of desired growth. The complete summary would have similar statements relating to other areas of progress being summarized.

NAME: *Frank Doane* GRADE *5*
DATE *12/7/—*

PROBLEM SOLVING AND BASIC SKILLS

Analysis of Area-Goal		*Evidence*	*Recommendations*
Focuses use of resources in terms of points of inquiry.	11/7	Made outline of points to be written about in report for class book on *Important Inventions.*	As a next step give attention to ways of checking reliability of sources used. (Use as basis for selecting sources.)

Analysis of Area-Goal		*Evidence*	*Recommendations*
Uses index to locate desired information.		Used three references; used index to locate material in book; took notes from which to write report.	
Unable to skim material to locate pertinent parts when seeking factual data; recognizes problem.	12/2	Spent twenty minutes reading material in which only one paragraph gave the data needed.	Work on skimming exercises with factual content.
Has developed spelling conscience; careful to check work but this is limiting in terms of time required.	11/28	Has continued own dictionary of "My Spelling Gremlins." Has had several stories and articles accepted by school paper —none after the first has been returned for spelling.	Continue "attack" on spelling. From time to time "take stock" of number of spelling errors in a piece of work —keep record of progress (might make bar graph).
Oral presentations (when working from notes) are clear and interesting; contributions in group discussion sometimes involved.			

. . . . . .

NAME: *Sally Kroger* GRADE *11*
DATE *12/28/—*

ADJUSTMENT TO AND COOPERATION WITH OTHERS

Disagrees with a point of view without personal antagonism	11/7	". . . have you really examined the speeches? Have you checked on what they are actually saying on the basic issues? Let's take a major speech of each candidate and examine it	

Analysis of Area-Goal		*Evidence*	*Recommendations*
		for issues, logic of argument, and use of color words."	
	11/19	"I think quite differently about the Christmas formal, but let's look at both the proposals in terms of what we hope to achieve."	
Accepts and acts on criticism given by status persons; still finds it difficult to accept criticism of peers	11/8	Classmate suggested that Sally check a section of her report against a particular reference. "I will if you think I should, Miss Johnson." This she did cheerfully when I supported the proposal.	From time to time help Sally analyze incidents noted in her record—point up contrast in way she disagrees with someone and gives criticism and her response to criticism. Follow up Sally's proposal that her attention be called at the time it happens. She is to make specific suggestions regarding ways of doing.

Your student teacher will need your help in preparing summary records and in using them with learners and with parents. He will need to grow in skill in periodically summarizing the data in the cumulative record both by himself and with the learner. The learner's part in this process is considered in a later section in this chapter.

PERSONS RESPONSIBLE FOR EVALUATING PUPIL GROWTH

In the preceding section it was noted that evaluation is a continuous process and an integral part of teaching and learning. It is a part of making choices, of determining next steps, of making changes in behavior, of participating in situations in which examinations are used, as well as the periodic occasions on which a summary evaluation is made. Who are the persons responsible

for both continuous evaluation and the stock taking or summary evaluation which is made on occasion? What part does the learner himself play? his group of peers? parents? teachers?

Evaluation Is a Cooperative Process in Which the Learner Takes an Active Part

An important part of each individual's growth is the ability to evaluate himself. To be able to evaluate and appraise one's needs, to be able to look at one's competence and at progress made, to be able to propose next steps—these are signs of developing maturity. To thus grow, the pupil must be directly involved in the evaluation process. To provide for such growth, evaluation must be a cooperative process which leads to self-evaluation. There is also need for each learner to grow in power to evaluate the situations in which he finds himself and to react soundly to the behavior of others in those situations.

Your student teacher, in turn, will need your assistance in guiding individuals and groups as they evaluate themselves and their experiences. He will be helped as together you consider the contributions that children and youth can make to their cumulative records. Learners can select the samples of their work that they feel are representative of their progress. They can record out-of-school activities which they feel are significant—what they did during leisure time, how they met a particular situation, their reactions to an event observed or participated in, some achievement in keeping with the goals they are seeking to reach. Pupils can also record reactions to happenings in school which they feel represent progress or difficulties they are having in achieving the goals they have set up for themselves.

Closely related to the pupil's contributing to his cumulative record is the use of that record, under guidance, to note progress being made, and in light of that progress to plan next steps in his work. Your student teacher will be helped by participating in the individual conferences which you have with pupils to share the evidence brought together in their records and to help them note progress and set new goals. Discuss with your student teacher such factors in pupil use of their individual records as (1) how to help the learner interpret comments of different individuals

who have contributed to his record, (2) how to deal with situations in which the pupil differs with the recorded statement and in which he has contrary evidence to be recorded, (3) when to withhold evidence, such as that which the teacher believes is accurate but which is not substantiated or that which the learner has not yet directly experienced and does not know about. To be able to look squarely and without undue emotion at both positive and negative aspects of progress is an important part of growth toward maturity. To so grow, the individual must both contribute to and see and use the evidence found in his record. As you well know, this requires careful guidance of a kind that is based upon the learner's readiness to profit from the experience.

Discuss these matters with your student teacher, have him share in individual conferences which you have with pupils, and provide opportunity for him to carry major responsibility for such conferences with some pupils. This work with an individual pupil may relate to a particular piece of work or to making a summary evaluation of progress over a period of time. All but the youngest children can participate in making the summary evaluation, and older children can bring their independently made summary to a conference at which pupil and teacher compare their summaries and build a joint statement to be shared with parents and made a part of the permanent record. The teacher-to-be who has been working with you in this way will enter the profession with a healthy attitude toward the place and use of cumulative records, will recognize that both positive and negative evidence must be included if an accurate picture is to be gained, and will know how to share a record with a pupil so that it will help him to see the progress he has been making, to set new and better goals, and to commit himself to a healthy program of activity to achieve them.

There are, of course, other ways in which children and youth share in the evaluation process, ways that are indirectly rather than directly related to pupil records. The teacher-to-be needs also to see how you guide these experiences involving evaluation and to test his own ability to guide them. Help him to see why and how you provide for unassigned time in which individuals make a free choice of activities, how and when you help individuals evaluate their choices, and provide opportunity for him to guide such activities. Other needed insights will come as the

student teacher works with you in planning cooperatively with pupils—discussing the progress they are making toward an agreed-upon goal or goals, what changes should be made in plans, and what next steps should be. This may relate to the work of a particular pupil, as you work in an individual conference, or to an activity undertaken or being planned by a class group. It is a part of daily and long-view planning periods. Still other ways of involving and guiding learners in the evaluation process will become evident as together you help pupils build class standards—for the use of time and materials, for effective discussion, for written materials to be submitted to the school paper, for social occasions, or for some other purpose—and guide learners in applying those standards to their own behavior and that of others. These and other experiences in the school curriculum involve the learner in self-evaluation and in the evaluation of the experiences which are part of his daily life. Such evaluation is continuous from early childhood through adulthood. Goals change and situations differ but evaluation by the individual is an integral and important part of each.

Parents and Other Laymen Have an Important Part in the Evaluation Process

Home, school, and community see different aspects of the learner's growth and how his growth in a particular area is used in varied situations. Each, to do its work effectively, must know what is being done by the others; each must make its contribution to the total growth and development of children and youth. Parents and other laymen share in the evaluation process in two major ways. First, they help the school to a further understanding of the learner. Little real understanding of the learner can be gained by teachers who do not know his home. Parents have much to offer in interpreting and evaluating growth as they, through individual parent-teacher conferences, group conferences, or notations for inclusion in the cumulative record, indicate the behavior of children and youth in out-of-school situations. Is the pupil responding consistently in meeting similar situations in the home and the school? What are the difficulties he is meeting in the home? As your student teacher works with parents and comes to

realize firsthand the help they can be in adding to an understanding of pupils, he will also see the value in visits to the home and in welcoming parents as observers and participants in the school.

Individuals and groups in the community can likewise make a fundamental contribution to the evaluation of pupil growth. The family physician, the police officer who observes behavior at the traffic intersection or in the business district, youth organizations to which the learner belongs, the church, welfare agencies, the merchant or the local librarian—these and others often are willing to help the school gain a more complete picture of pupil behavior. Their experience with learners can provide significant evidence pointing to needs or to concepts and skills which have been learned in the full meaning of that term—which, in other words, are affecting and guiding behavior.

When there is joint understanding and interpretation of learners and their growth, a stronger and more unified educational program can be developed. This suggests the second way in which parents and other laymen share in the evaluation process, namely, by using their joint interpretation of the learner's progress to plan supplementary and supporting educational experiences. Working cooperatively to plan enriching activities may involve several aspects of evaluation. Both parents and other laymen are interested in knowing the values and goals toward which the school is working, just as the school needs to know the direction of growth desired by the home and the community. Joint understanding of goals and the development of common values is an important step toward consistent and unified experiences for children and youth. Parents have a special interest in the evaluation of the growth of each of their children by the school, just as the school is concerned about the way in which pupils respond to situations in their everyday life outside the school. Summary evaluations and, as needed, additional supporting evidence are shared with parents as a basis for mutual understanding of the pupil's progress and for making plans as to the direction and nature of joint guidance of the school and the home. So important is this aspect of cooperative evaluation thought to be that a separate section is given to a consideration of ways of reporting pupil progress (see pages 306–319). Community members who work closely with the school are also interested in the progress of children and youth of the commu-

nity—what does their behavior suggest as to the effectiveness of the work of the school, where do they need further help, are there ways in which community groups can help, are there happenings in the community which negate the work of the school?

Out of such joint study of the values sought and the progress being made by individuals and groups can come better allocation of responsibilities and decisions on how each agency can vary its emphasis in the interest of total, balanced growth of children and youth. From such joint pooling of experiences can come planning that leads to cooperative action in which the school, the home, and other community agencies supplement and support each other in the guidance of young citizens of the community. This may be in the nature of helping learners become aware of educative possibilities in the community, of working together to eliminate undesirable situations, of deciding which of several agencies is best equipped to offer a particular kind of experience and guidance, of determining how the school and other agencies can modify their practices to provide needed consistency of experience and guidance of activities.

Your student teacher will find new meaning in the thought that the major purpose of evaluation is to promote growth, and in the concept of everything in the environment providing a potential learning experience, as he works with parents and other laymen along the lines just discussed. It is important that he work with you, and later under your guidance assume responsibility, in discussing the growth of a pupil with his parents and planning with them next steps for the home and the school, in keeping parents informed about the work of the school and comparing the direction and nature of growth desired by home and by school, in surveying available community experiences to see how they relate to pupil needs and desired growth, in working with community agencies in providing supporting and enriching experiences for children and youth.

Evaluation Is Central to Guiding Learning Experiences

Evaluation of the growth of the learner, or of a group of learners, forms the basis for decisions on the nature of the next expe-

riences needed and of next steps in the developing curriculum. From periodic summary appraisals of daily records come the teacher's decisions as to how best to guide ongoing experiences and when to introduce new ones.

Engage your student teacher in this evaluative process as together you, and later he alone but sharing the results of his efforts with you, outline block or unit plans and daily plans and use them as guides in your cooperative planning with learners. Help him, too, to see firsthand how the teacher working in a special field needs to engage in the same kind of evaluation, how homeroom and special teacher need to work together—sharing evaluative evidence, setting up plans for supplementing each other's efforts, deciding who can best provide certain experiences. If you are working in a departmental organization, it is equally important to help the teacher-to-be to come to understand how teachers working in different areas with the same pupil need to coordinate their efforts by sharing and interpreting different experiences, by jointly deciding how to reinforce their various individual efforts to help the learner achieve desired goals. For example, what do the pupil's written and oral statements indicate to be his strengths and limitations when his attention is on the point under discussion in the social studies area and not directly on English usage? Will it help if the instructor in the social studies makes such papers available to the teacher of English through the pupil's cumulative record? It is important for the student teacher to know what is being done in your school to coordinate the efforts of different teachers and to see the learner as a total organism. What are his and your ideas about what can be done to better achieve the desired goals?

It is also important that the teacher-to-be understand the leadership role of the administration as it relates to evaluation. Only as he understands the work of the administrative officers can he cooperate fully in working with them and in relating his efforts in a mutually supporting role. Your student teacher will profit from sharing in staff discussion of growth standards and evaluative procedures in faculty meetings or special committee work, in meetings with parents and other community members to share thinking about educational goals, in meetings with parents to consider the most helpful ways of sharing pupil progress.

REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS

Increasingly, as evaluation has come to be engaged in primarily for the purpose of promoting growth rather than passing judgment, the earlier forms of report cards have been found to be inadequate. New ways of sharing more information with pupils and parents about the growth which individuals are making have been developed and tried out experimentally. Back of these endeavors have been important decisions relating to such questions as these: What is the nature of the growth sought and to be shared? Should growth be indicated with reference to achieving a specific standard or in terms of the amount of change? Is a letter or other form of grade an adequate indicator of progress? In what ways can progress best be shared and understood?

The Nature of the Growth Sought

Conditions Ways of Reporting Progress

When growth is related to the total development of the individual, provision must be made for reporting pupil progress in the various areas of living. There is need for the pupil, his parents, and the teachers who work with him to understand the nature of his progress toward the range of behavioral goals outlined in an earlier section of this chapter (pages 276–283). Further, since something can be said to be learned when it affects behavior, the growth sought is a behavioral response. For example, the growth sought is not expressed in ability to spell a list of words correctly. Rather, it is found in the ability of the individual to spell those words correctly in his writing when major attention is upon the writing. This suggests that a percentage grade, which might accurately report the number of words misspelled on a series of word lists, does not adequately indicate the pupil's spelling competence. When evaluation is in terms of ability to meet situations of everyday living rather than only the verbal mastery of the knowledge needed to meet those situations —when desired growth is in terms of action based upon understandings and skills rather than the abstract mastery of knowledge and skills—pupil progress must be reported in ways to answer such questions as . . .

- In what areas do learners act effectively?
- Where do they have understandings on which they do not act?
- What further understandings do they need for intelligent action?
- What skills do they lack?
- On what values do they act?

Reports of Progress Should Relate Individual Differences in Rate, Pattern, and Ultimate Level of Development to Accepted Behavioral Goals

What does the well-known principle of individual differences mean for reporting pupil behavioral progress? Does it suggest that evaluation should be in terms of the learner's own potentialities and limitations without reference to generally accepted standards? Is there no place for a common set of values or goals toward which all individuals work? The answers made by educators to these questions have at times resulted in confusion and misunderstanding on the part of both educators and parents. Picture the confusion of the parent who receives periodic progress reports indicating that Alice is doing very well in reading, and then at the end of the term is advised that she should not be promoted because of her limited ability in reading. The only plausible explanation is that the periodic reports were based on the satisfactory gains Alice was making in terms of her abilities and limitations, while the final report was in terms of a set of grade standards in reading. Or, if the policy of the school is one of continuous promotion, consider the situation of Robert, who is promoted yearly with reports showing progress in reading but finds himself unable to meet the reading demands of his work in high school. The conflict is one brought about by failure to distinguish between evaluation in terms of the learner's own rate and level of development and that indicated by agreed-upon desired goals. What does this seeming dichotomy mean for reporting pupil progress?

The study which your student teacher will have made of findings regarding individual differences in rate, pattern, and level

of development in any area will help him to see that not all children or youth in a class can be expected to reach a fixed point or level in reading. He will also recognize that the principle of individual differences applies equally to other areas of learning. He will probably have discussed with his college instructors various ways in which schools are recognizing individual differences and at the same time relating an individual's progress to generally agreed-upon values or standards. He will need your help in seeing the way in which you meet this problem, how the policy followed in your school functions, and what it means to pupils and parents.

Perhaps you have found that a useful way to recognize both growth and what that growth means in terms of desired goals is to use a descriptive statement in reporting progress. The following is an excerpt from one such descriptive report. It relates to a ninth-grader's progress in achieving goals in the area of adjustment to and cooperation with others.

> Frances still has a tendency to be impatient with other youngsters in the group. This is sometimes due to superior ability on her part in a specific direction, but it is just as often due to a slight lack of respect for the potential contributions of others. She recognizes this tendency, and is just as impatient with herself as she is with others. It is important to note that this objectivity of hers about her own problems had resulted in a much better adjustment for her in the group.
>
> She also has a tendency to resent suggestions from me as the teacher. She doesn't like to recognize need for help and at times is almost sullen when help and suggestions are offered. This occurred, for example, recently when I corrected her pronunciation of a word. She said "ruther" for "rather," and I merely mentioned that "rather" was a better pronunciation. She became indignant and insisted that she didn't pronounce the word that way. Other children take such suggestions as a matter of course, say the word correctly and go on. However, I do not wish to overemphasize this aspect of her work, because these are problems which she herself recognizes and has constantly worked on and shown improvement in. She does need, though, to face and analyze these problems.
>
> It should be said that the tendency to be impatient is probably as much of an asset as a liability. She is always impatient of her own accomplishment and is constantly working for improvement. Much of her outstanding progress is due to her determination and vigor and insistence on work well done.

If the progress report is a summary statement, the three-column form suggested earlier (page 297) provides opportunity in the "Analysis" column to show present behavioral values and how they relate to desired goals. In the "Evidence" column two items of evidence can be reported, the first of which shows the individual's behavior at the beginning of his work or at the last time of reporting and the second indicates the present stage of action. Frances' progress report might have a section such as the following.

Analysis of Area-Goal	*Evidence*	*Recommendations*
Impatient with own limitations and those of others in intellectual realm; empathic with physically handicapped	9/26 "Do hurry, Joan, you take too long to think anything through."	
	12/7 "I know I'm impatient. It's one of my problems. Maybe it would help if one of you would call me every time I start to behave that way. It would be a help. I don't want to be that way."	Have help of peer group as requested. Frances check on feelings before speaking. Analyze cumulative record with Frances periodically to (1) note progress, (2) study nature and effect of responses, and (3) identify personal strength.

You may, on the other hand, be in a school where it is required that some form of grade be used to report progress. In this case you may have to meet the problem by reporting two grades—A/B—to indicate by the first the progress made by the pupil in terms of his abilities and by the second what that ability means in terms of goals generally accepted as desirable for the given age-grade. Or, you may find it necessary to give a single grade representing either growth or level of development. Have you, in such instances, found it useful to send supplementary informal communications to parents to give them a more complete picture of their child's progress both with reference to growth as shown in change of behavior and in terms of goals which are desirable for the child? Perhaps you have found a still different way of meeting the problem. Share this with your student teacher.

Whatever the plan used for reporting level of development in

relation to desired competence, one of the important areas of learning for every child and youth is to recognize realistically the progress he is making, what his limitations are in a particular area of competence, the values and goals toward which he should work and which he may reasonably be expected to attain, and how these goals relate to standards generally held as desirable and necessary. Both learners and parents will profit by seeing progress as an ongoing process and one which recognizes the worth of each individual for his uniqueness rather than his ability to achieve a common level of development. Both parents and pupils need to relate individual growth to generally accepted values and desired goals. When this can be done realistically, more adequate and sounder decisions will be made regarding school and college work as well as vocational choices.

Grades Do Not Adequately Show Pupil Progress

The foregoing discussion suggests that the usual letter or numerical grade is an inadequate means for reporting pupil progress. First, if a single grade is used, is it to be interpreted to be an evaluation of growth or of a degree of achievement toward a stated goal? Second, even if two or more grades are used, can growth or achievement in any area be indicated by a grade? If a grade of "A" or "excellent" is reported as a means of characterizing Joan's work in reading, does it mean that she reads material of a certain level of difficulty, that she reads accurately, that she reads with a particular speed, that she reads with ease varied types of materials, that she varies her reading techniques with the nature of her material and purpose? It is most unlikely that Joan meets each of the suggested criteria with equal excellence. Just what, then, does the "A" mean?

To break down an area into its major behavioral components and report a separate grade for each will be of some help in providing a meaningful report of progress. But there are still other problems, for Joan may read with a particular speed when engaged in recreational reading or working in the social studies but use a much slower rate when working with materials relating to the natural and physical environment. The many facets of learning in any area, and their interrelationships within a field and be-

tween fields, suggest that better ways than the usual grade must be found for reporting pupil progress.

Statements Descriptive of Behavioral Growth Are Needed to Report Pupil Progress

If letter grades and the usual periodic report card are used in your school, it will give the student teacher an opportunity to experience the difficulties and limitations of this form of reporting. He will want to discuss with you his problems in determining a letter grade and in explaining its meaning to pupils and to parents. Can you, with the added help which your student teacher can give, experiment with ways in which the letter-grade report can be supplemented and made more useful and meaningful? Perhaps you are already using other means of reporting in which the student teacher can share.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CONFERENCE AS A WAY OF REPORTING AND SHARING PROGRESS. Conferences with pupils or with parents, or joint meetings with a learner and his parents, are probably one of the most effective ways of sharing pupil progress. The value lies in the opportunity afforded for describing behavior and behavioral change, for a give-and-take of ideas and for making sure that they are clearly communicated. There is time for an exchange of ideas and for the use of concrete illustrations to clarify meanings.

That the conference time be wisely used, however, is most important. As the student teacher observes and shares in conferences which you have with pupils and with parents he will note: (1) the preparation you make for the conference; (2) the way in which you use data from the cumulative record and how the summary record is central in the conference; (3) how you open a discussion of pupil progress; (4) the part the pupil has in the conference and how together you compare his notations and summary of his growth with the summary statement you have prepared; (5) the arrangements for time and place of conferring; and (6) the significance of the written summary statement which pupil and/or parent may take with him. How important these aspects of conferring are, if time is to be used wisely and the po-

tential benefits of the sharing of pupil progress through the conference are to be realized, will be made even more clear as the student teacher assumes responsibility for such conferences under your guidance.

For pupil and parent the conference dealing with pupil progress should contribute to understanding the goals of the school, the immediate and long-range values and objectives of the pupil, how he and his teachers and parents have been working toward the desired behavioral achievements, the progress made and the obstacles met, what expectancies are realistic, and should include planning of next steps which each will take toward further growth. For your student teacher and yourself new insights may be gained regarding the parent and the home situation, parent relations with the pupils, ways in which the home might contribute to pupil progress, and ways in which school and home can work together.

Still other learnings from such a conference are important for the teacher-to-be. Conferences with pupils and/or parents to discuss pupil growth and plan for next steps can be a rich experience for the student teacher in helping him realize the significance of the conference as a learning experience, the very real ability of children and youth to look squarely at their progress and to plan next steps, the special problems created by well-meaning but overly ambitious, indulgent, or careless parents, and the need for home and school to work together. The student teacher also needs, through this type of conference, to increase his skills in guiding a conference.

All the essential elements of the conference noted in Chapter 14 apply to this type of discussion—preparation, use of basic educational principles in guiding the discussion, evaluation of the conference results. The teacher-to-be will need your help in planning for such conferences, in knowing when to try to share a total picture of growth and when to emphasize a particular area of progress, in dealing with unexpected happenings during the conference, such as the outbursts of the parent who cannot accept his child's limited abilities or the parent who injects his personal marital problems, and in evaluating the conference to find ways in which he can work more effectively with pupils and

parents. Together you will wish to look at the values of the individual conference as a means of reporting pupil progress.

USING WRITTEN STATEMENTS IN DESCRIBING BEHAVIORAL GROWTH IN REPORTING PROGRESS. While the individual conference as a means of sharing pupil progress has much to commend it, it is not always possible to use this method. For one thing it is time-consuming. The conference itself requires time, and a written notation of major points—usually a summary report—must also be prepared. Some teachers feel that time does not permit more than the preparation of the written statement and such conferences when especially requested either by the parent or the teacher. Then, too, in situations where parents are not at ease with the English language or the teacher with their native tongue the conference has little value. Problems created when both parents work or when parents are hesitant because of dress or home conditions to meet the teacher face-to-face may make it desirable to use a written form of communication to share pupil progress.

Schools are using a variety of such forms of written communication. One of the most common is the checklist of areas of growth in which each aspect of growth is checked as "Good," "Satisfactory," or "Poor," and space is provided for discussing in greater detail one or more of the items. This is a slight improvement over the old letter-grade report. Other schools have moved toward listing major areas of growth and allowing space for a brief descriptive comment on each. Still others are using the letter as a means of communication, and in this instance the teacher prepares a series of paragraphs dealing with aspects of growth which he wishes to discuss with the parent.

The written descriptive statement can be a valuable means of communicating pupil progress if provision is made (1) for incisive statements which really describe behavioral growth, (2) for evidence which clarifies and supports the evaluative statement, and (3) for coverage of all those aspects of growth relevant at the particular time. It may be helpful to your student teacher to check copies of progress letters which you have previously written against these three points and thereby learn what the points mean in terms of specific statements included in the

written communication. He will, of course, again use these or similar criteria in checking the written descriptive statements which he will write while working with you. It is very easy, when using an unstructured letter, to fail to implement these points, especially the third. A study of letters to parents often reveals that statements are very general—"It is a joy to have Grace in the fifth grade," "Arthur has been making steady progress in his work in geometry," "Donna is a most cooperative member of the group." Such statements, while pleasing to hear, have the same limitations as a letter grade. In what ways is Donna cooperative, under what conditions? What kind of progress is Arthur making —has he memorized a number of theorems and their proofs, can he work originals, does he see how to use basic geometrical concepts where they apply in situations of everyday living? Important aspects of total growth are sometimes overlooked when writing summary letters.

One cooperating teacher, in an effort to help parents relate pupil growth to the ongoing class activities, sent them a two-part communication.[3] The first part, which was duplicated for the parents of all the pupils, described the work in which the class was engaged. The following excerpts are illustrative.

DESCRIPTION OF WORK IN PROGRESS
IN SEVENTH GRADE

Study of Life and Industries in Alabama

This study represents the most important phase of the work going on in our group at the present time. It is important that children of this age gain as thorough an understanding as possible of the industrial backgrounds of their region, state, and nation. This work began because of the children's interest in the manufacturing industry of this section of the state. They began early in the study to compare the manufacturing industry with agriculture, and the work on our own school garden has been closely tied up with this problem. The following are only a few of the goals which we have in this study:

1. To gain understanding of the fundamental processes involved in several manufacturing industries.
2. To discover reasons for the apparent lack of manufacturing industries in this section of our state.
3. To find reasons why farming pays poorly in comparison with manufacturing industries.

[3] Adapted from a report prepared by Dr. Helen Strickland when a member of the Laboratory School staff of the State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama.

4. To learn to use books better in finding answers to questions.
5. To be able to write more intelligently about things seen and heard.
6. To understand why industries are located where they are.

We are using the following methods and materials in seeking answers to these problems:

1. Books

   We have been using a large number of books in connection with this work. . . . Children have used several standard textbooks in geography. There has been constant reference to magazines and encyclopedias. . . .

2. Trips

   Wherever possible, we are anxious to see things we read about. . . .

   We consider the trips to be a very important part of our work and are using this opportunity to tell you something about our plans in this connection. . . .

3. Special people

   Outside people are brought in when they have special information which will help us in solving problems.

4. . . . . .

The second part, which was different for each pupil, described how the particular learner related himself to the class work and also shared with the parent any activities in which the pupil was individually engaged. The excerpts which follow are taken from the report to parents of one pupil in the seventh grade class.

. . . . . .

Anne continues to use excellent techniques in going about the solving of a problem, using books in the room, library facilities, such as reference guides, maps, and encyclopedias, quite independently. She has been responsible for finding many of the books and references which have helped most in our study.

She has written several good accounts of our trips. After she has visited a plant she is able to write good business letters thanking the owners for guide service.

Anne is aware of her tendency to be impatient with others in group work. She is inclined to do too much of the work herself and thereby deprives others of a fair share of responsibility. She is trying to overcome this limitation by channeling her quick insight into ways of working effectively with others and taking a leadership role when appropriate.

Anne has served as one of the seventh grade representatives on the student council. Her contributions have been pertinent and she is making steady progress in timing her comments better to allow for others to contribute.

. . . . . .

This form of written communication has the merit of helping parents to understand better what is taking place in the school and what the work means for his child. It also has a definite structure which contributes to specific reporting in a number of areas and thereby serves as a safeguard against omissions, general statements, and statements which have little meaning because of lack of concrete evidence.

You may wish to consider with your student teacher the readiness of your pupils and the parents for using the three-column summary report discussed on page 297 as the written form of sharing pupil progress. This way of reporting progress assures specific statements supported by evidence and calls attention to all major areas of growth. If pupils are familiar with this way of summarizing progress and understand the content, they can be the necessary interpreters of the record to their parents. Or, as you first move toward this way of reporting, you may want to accompany the summary form with a brief explanatory letter addressed to parents.

Reporting Pupil Growth through Informal Notes

In addition to the periodic summary evaluation, better understanding between home and school and effective encouragement to learners can be gained through the use of informal evaluative statements. These statements, which usually relate to a particular activity or area of progress, can be written and shared at any time that pupil or teacher feels such a statement would be of interest to the parent. As the following illustrations suggest, this informal notation may refer to a particular achievement, a request for help which it is believed the parent can best give, a problem or difficulty which is baffling and with which little progress is being made.

Dear Mother and Dad,

Miss Henley and I want you to know that I am doing much better in arithmetic. I met the qualifications for a clerk in our school store today. I have been practicing very hard to add more quickly and not make mistakes.

Your son,
Rod

Dear Mrs. Streeter,

Jimmie has been making steady progress in expressing himself through art media. His growth and interest suggest that he would profit from participating in the Saturday class at the Art Museum. Both Jimmie and I would appreciate your help in making it possible for him to have this experience.

Sincerely,
Zoe Beiler

Dear Mrs. Walsh,

Your daughter and I have been trying to work out a balanced program of class and non-class activities. We have encountered certain problems with which we need your help. Shirley will talk with you about these difficulties and a possible time for the three of us to confer.

Cordially,
Grace Baxter

The pupil may write the notation and ask the teacher to sign it also; the teacher may suggest that parents would be interested in a given happening and suggest that the pupil prepare the notation; or the teacher may prepare the statement and after discussing it with the pupil ask that he share it with his parents. Both pupils and teacher should see this as a convenient way of sharing experiences and needs with parents. The notation may refer to definite progress or it may indicate a limitation or need. How many such notations to send and when are matters to settle individually with each pupil.

Whatever form of descriptive statements you share with parents, help your student teacher to understand its strengths and its limitations and to experiment with ways of reporting which will help to overcome the present weaknesses. Provide opportunity for him to write descriptive statements that are specific, supported by evidence, and comprehensive in that all

major aspects of growth are considered. Help him to become his own critic of what he has written.

Changing Ways of Reporting Pupil Progress Is a Gradual Process

As you experiment with better ways of sharing your thinking about pupil progress with the learner himself, and with his parents, help your student teacher to become aware of what is involved in making desired changes. Help him to see that change is made gradually and with the understanding of those directly affected by the change. Often it is advisable to continue to use the familiar form of reporting while introducing the new; to supplement the old and understood with the new and unfamiliar. In one school the descriptive letter sent along with the usual letter-grade report card was the "new" which resulted in such parent reactions as: "Why, that is just the way Paul acts at home!" "Your letter certainly helped us to see the problems our daughter faces," "You really do know Frances and we appreciate what you are doing for her," "I see now that I must see that Dan takes off his own clothes—by following up after him I am undermining what you are trying to do." These were responses from parents, sent to the teacher after receiving the usual report card *plus* the descriptive letter. So worthwhile did they find the letter that at a later PTA meeting these parents of first-graders asked if a similar kind of letter might also be sent for their older children. One teacher's added experimental form of reporting led to a change in the total school policy relative to sharing pupil progress.

The teacher-to-be will be the richer for the experiences he has with you which help him to understand the importance of teacher initiative, the value of trying out ideas experimentally, the work of a faculty or a committee on reporting pupil progress, the role of the administration in helping to bring about needed change, the part that children and youth can play in developing better ways of helping to identify their progress and share it with parents, and ways in which parents can be helped to contribute to and understand what the school is doing in evaluating pupil progress.

Reports of Progress Should Not Be Made for All Pupils at the Same Time

Needs of individuals differ. Their rates of growth vary. These facts about the human organism apply to evaluation as well as to other aspects of the teaching-learning process. Not all pupils will reach the point of needing to evaluate their progress and plan next steps at the same time. Some will profit by taking an over-all evaluative look, while others will profit most by evaluating progress and needs in a particular area. Thus, to use evaluation as a learning experience to meet the needs of individuals means that reports of progress will not be made for all pupils at the same time.

Other values accrue by not sending reports of pupil progress or having conferences with all parents at the same time. One is that evaluation is made an individual matter and parents are discouraged from comparing their child's work with that of a neighbor's child. Another is that children and youth are not embarrassed by being asked about their progress by eager peers. And, equally important, teachers are not faced with the almost insurmountable task of preparing twenty to forty or more summary reports within a few days or weeks. It takes time and thought to prepare a sound and useful summary evaluation of a pupil's progress. To prepare a large number of such reports in a limited time results in discouragement, the tendency to use clichés rather than definitive statements, and in fatigue which impairs teaching efforts.

Important as evaluation is as an integral part of the learning process, it must not have undue emphasis. It must take its place along with the other activities which make up the total range of the teacher's work, and be developed so as to contribute to rather than interfere with effectiveness in other responsibilities. It is important that the student teacher work out a realistic way of evaluating pupil progress so that he can effectively carry out the other responsibilities of the teacher discussed in the next chapter.

12

GUIDING THE STUDENT IN DEALING WITH THE RANGE OF A TEACHER'S ACTIVITIES

GUIDING the experiences of boys and girls in the classroom is the central but not the only responsibility carried by today's teacher. The role of the teacher in America's present educational program is deep and broad. There is every reason to believe that as schools take a more and more significant part in contributing to and providing direction for society, teachers will need to carry even greater responsibilities. It should be kept in mind that trends toward broadening and deepening the teacher's work result from a single purpose—that of providing better learning experiences for children and youth.

A TEACHER'S WORK NOT CONFINED TO THE CLASSROOM

It is important that prospective teachers perceive clearly the relationship between the increasingly manifold nature of the job and the central purpose of guiding learning activities in the classroom. In other words, teachers must see participation in such activities as child study programs, community surveys, parent study groups, school-community councils, and curriculum committees as an integral part of their guidance function in the class-

room. Likewise, they should consider the variety of activities designed for personal growth, for citizenship development, and for professional stimulation as opportunities to increase their usefulness and ability in the guidance of learning.

To help students develop constructive attitudes toward such activities, to provide them opportunities for experience in many different aspects of the teacher's job, and to assist them in perceiving proper relationships among various teacher activities become major obligations of those persons working closely with prospective teachers. The entire preservice program is devoted to these ends and students will have had many isolated experiences prior to student teaching. But student teaching should provide unique opportunity for students to experience the complete role of the teacher in a real school-community situation.

Attention Needs to Be Given to the Range of the Teacher's Activities

That the need for student teachers to experience the complete role of the teacher does not receive adequate attention is evident from studies of present practices in institutions preparing teachers. Such studies reveal that the further the suggested experiences for preservice teacher education are removed from the actual guidance of learning activities within the classroom, the fewer are the opportunities provided for students to have those experiences. To put it another way, students have many opportunities to work in classrooms with a teacher and pupils but few opportunities to work with a total school staff on a whole school program, and still fewer opportunities to participate in school-community activities.

Follow-up studies of recent graduates show also that the products of present teacher education programs are sometimes inadequately prepared to participate in many of the activities now accepted as part of the teaching job.

> Miss Mark was one of the most superior students the teachers college had ever had. Those who worked with her on the college campus predicted that she would be an outstanding teacher of children. She was enthusiastic, intelligent, and possessed a rather un-

usual sensitivity to children. Late in October of her first year of teaching a representative from the college visited Miss Mark to see how she was getting along and if the college might be of any service to her. The principal of the elementary school where Miss Mark was teaching greeted the visitor from the college with a sigh of relief and, "I'm so glad you have come for I don't know how to help Miss Mark. She is in many ways superior, but she is not able to handle this job."

Over dinner that evening, Miss Mark poured out her troubles to the college representative. In brief she said: Student teaching was the best part of my college work. But, it was so inadequate. . . . Why, do you know that when I began in the fall, I had no idea what it was like to be responsible for a whole group of children for a whole day. I didn't know how to talk to parents when they came to see me. I had almost no idea how courses of study were developed and what I should do when I was asked to serve on a curriculum committee. Were there any clubs in the school I worked in? I never knew of any. Did we ever have all-school assembly programs? I never saw one.

Later in the evening, Miss Mark broke down and confessed that part of her trouble was that she was unhappy living in the community. She said that she had been invited out by several people, but that she found they talked about things she didn't know and that she couldn't keep up with the conversation.

The following day this same college representative visited a high school teacher in an adjoining town. The story here was similar. Mr. Ramsdell, whom everybody liked and called Jack, was fairly successful on his job, but he was in a complaining mood when he had lunch with the college representative. His complaints all centered in the fact that "nobody in the college told me I would have to do all of these things as a teacher." He referred to sponsoring the yearbook, taking tickets at the basketball game, participating in a city-wide committee to consider a revision of the core of English-social studies, and acting as librarian three periods a week.

When the college representative got back to the campus, he immediately explored all the records there on these and other students whom he had visited. Sure enough, Miss Mark had done her student teaching in the Laboratory School in the second grade. While there, the record showed she had taught two small groups in reading and had observed the children on the playground and in the art center while a specialist had directed activities. A notation on her record indicated that the supervising teacher thought very highly of Miss Mark, but that she was concerned because Miss Mark was getting such a poor picture of what the job of teaching really was like. Jack's record showed that he had taught two classes in United States history in a cooperating high school. The cooperating teacher had com-

mented that Jack never seemed to have time "even to have a conference, let alone do some of the other things he ought to be doing around the high school."

It may appear to you that the two cases cited above are isolated ones representing the rare exception. But this is not true. Similar findings have been secured by many persons who have made numerous types of follow-up studies.

Administrative and supervisory personnel in public schools provide additional evidence on this point when they discuss problems of beginning teachers. They say many teachers fail because they do not know how to get along with the teacher next door; or they enter the profession with skewed concepts of the role of supervision; or they have new ideas of how to teach and of what experiences the school should provide, but have little ability to work with others in making curriculum revisions. They say, too, that beginning teachers are sometimes overwhelmed with the number of different tasks they must undertake, and that they get frustrated because they don't know how to use their time wisely. These administrators and supervisors suggest that teacher education institutions try to give students a more real picture of the job of the teacher, with its many aspects, and that this be done in representative schools.

Much of the Teacher's Work Must Be Done in Cooperation with Others

Only a few of the activities of the teacher are performed in isolation. Pre-planning for work with boys and girls, reflection on and evaluation of progress made by individuals (both pupils and teacher), certain clerical and routine tasks, and some record-keeping—these probably represent the major activities in which a teacher engages alone. Even these, when well done, many times involve other individuals. The great bulk of the work of the classroom teacher must be done in cooperation with other people. In general, these other people are children or youth in the school, other teachers, supervisors and adminstrators, custodians, specialists of various kinds, parents and other lay members of the school community.

Engaging in productive enterprises with others, regardless of

the job to be done, involves certain common elements of behavior. To be a successful member of any working group requires: (1) ability to build good human relationships through a constellation of attitudes, understandings, and skills related to the process of interaction; (2) knowledge of and skill in group procedures, such as defining problems, planning steps to be taken, evaluating results, generalizing from experience; (3) specific discussion skills, such as knowing "what to say when" to move a group ahead or how to state a point of view in a way that the listener attends to the idea being expressed rather than to the personality expressing it; and (4) an always increasing background of information relating to problems of education in general as well as to specific problems being treated at any time. In a democratic social order, much of education is directed toward helping individuals develop these and other common behaviors which make for good group membership.

Much of the preservice teacher education program is designed to make strong contributions to the prospective teacher's ability to work well with others. You have a right to expect that students have already acquired some degree of skill in many aspects of cooperative work. However, two facts must be remembered in connection with the skills students already possess when they begin a student teaching program. (1) The skills of cooperative activity are so complex and intricate that all people need to improve them continually. (2) Students need abundant opportunity to try out their skills, improve upon them, and acquire new ones in relation to the specific tasks of the teacher.

Therefore, you should make every effort to assist the student in learning through experience better ways of working cooperatively. At times you may help the student most by a direct attack on ways of working; at other times best help will be given indirectly as the student participates in cooperative activities with pupils, teachers, parents, administrators, and others.

This responsibility for helping students acquire desirable ways of working with others is taken seriously by many teacher educators today. Evidence of this fact is found, for example, in current handbooks for student teachers and for those working with them. One of the common parts of handbooks and mimeographed bulletins to student teachers and supervisors is a listing

of suggested activities in which the student teacher should engage. Such listings are often organized around suggestions for classroom experiences, total school activities, and community activities. They provide many hints as to the nature of activities in which a student teacher might engage as a part of learning to work with others toward the improvement of the total educational experience of boys and girls.

EXPERIENCES IN GUIDING CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

It cannot be assumed that when students enter upon student teaching they will have had contact with all the major functions of the teacher in the classroom setting. All students will have had some contacts; some students will have had more than others; some students, owing to previous contacts, will have made more growth than others. For all students there is need to provide a total experience which ties together previous learnings and helps a student to perceive activities in proper relationship to the whole. For all students there is need for some additional experiences which can be had only as a student becomes a working member of a team in a real school situation. Two kinds of need should be kept in mind as you plan experiences with and for your student teacher: (1) to have direct experiences with the varied activities of the teacher in the classroom situation; and (2) to experience the interrelatedness of the various activities and what is involved in carrying them out concurrently.

Provide for Your Student to Share in the Activities Normal to Your Work with Pupils

The particular experiences relating to your work in the classroom situation which can be provided for your student teacher will, of course, depend upon the activities in which you and the pupils are engaged. The point of view taken throughout this volume is that the natural and normal experiences of the learners provide the best possible learning activities for the student teacher. In guiding the normal, everyday activities of learners it is all too easy, however, to assume at times that the student

teacher understands and has experienced certain aspects of your work, and to continue to carry those responsibilities without involving him in them directly. Activities of teachers which often are not consciously made a direct responsibility of student teachers include: planning the daily schedule of activities; requisitioning supplies and instructional materials; using and helping pupils to use audio-visual materials; constructing, giving, and interpreting varied types of diagnostic and achievement tests; building bases for correcting papers and using the results of written work in planning next steps; determining appropriate growth standards; caring for the physical well-being of pupils; working with consultants or special teachers.

Determining the activities with boys and girls to which your student teacher should give attention at any given time is a matter requiring careful consideration of his special needs and interests. Based upon his background of previous experiences he will be ready to take more responsibility in some activities and less in others: there will be some to which he should give major attention and others from which he should be freed at certain times in order to work on his particular needs. The basic problem is one of relating your student's needs and the opportunity to share with you in each and all of your activities with pupils.

Help Your Student to Carry Teaching Responsibilities Forward Concurrently

To you and other teachers the interrelatedness of the various aspects of your work in the classroom is important. A major aspect of the art of teaching is providing for that interrelationship in guiding learning. Your student teacher needs to understand what it means to test his ability to carry the various facets of teaching forward concurrently. As was pointed out previously, this is one of the distinct contributions of student teaching as contrasted with other professional laboratory experiences, which may deal with a single aspect of the teacher's work at a time. While you provide for your student teacher to experience the total range of your activities in the classroom, also provide for him to experience the interrelatedness of those activities. Is he able, for example, to sense the physical needs of learners and

adjust lighting and ventilation at the same time that he guides a discussion, uses illustrative materials to clarify points, watches the responses of individuals, and adjusts his plans to take account of pupil reactions? It is not uncommon for the teacher to combine in a single teaching activity the study of learners, effective guidance of discussion, use of instructional materials, provision for individual differences, and modification of teaching plans. All that is known about learning suggests that the only way in which the teacher-to-be will learn how to carry forward concurrently the several aspects of guiding learning, and gain artistry in doing so, is to have opportunity to do just that under guidance.

EXPERIENCE WITH THE TOTAL SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

To develop understanding of the total school as a functioning unit, and the individual teacher's role in this unit, is another of the purposes of student teaching. It will take the conscious effort of many people to help students perceive clearly how all the activities of a school unit are developed, organized, and used for the welfare of boys and girls. The school principal, supervisors, department heads, specialists, custodians, and service personnel can each make a positive contribution to this end. However, the major responsibility rests with you, the classroom teacher under whose guidance the student teacher is working. You will want to study the student teacher and to plan cooperatively with him those activities which will best meet his particular needs. Your role will also include responsibility for making the necessary arrangements for him to participate in a wide variety of total school activities.

Following are some suggestions you may find useful in providing opportunity for your student to work as a member of a team in the entire educational program of the school. It should be remembered that individual differences among student teachers and among school situations will determine in large measure which of these or additional activities will be of value for any given student. Without question, the best activities are those which are an integral part of the ongoing program of the school. It should be possible to assume that any school worthy of partic-

ipation in a student teaching program will have an active, productive staff engaged in cooperative work of various types. Not all schools will have available all of the resources suggested, but every school should have some of them. Similarly, not all students will need all of these activities, but every student will need some of them. Your function is to plan cooperatively with the student for his activities, to make opportunities available, and to assist him in achieving desirable learning from his participation.

Help Your Student to Get Acquainted with the School Plant

It is important that your student teacher become acquainted with the school plant as an educational resource and grow in his understanding of how plant facilities and their use affect learning.

TOUR THE PHYSICAL PLANT WITH THE STUDENT TEACHER. It is customary procedure for student teachers to be taken on tours of the school building. Often these trips are planned very early in the student's stay in the school and are taken so rapidly that the results are negligible. A cursory trip through a school building has its merits, but it should be followed by more meaningful trips to various parts of the plant for specific purposes.

HAVE BOYS AND GIRLS PARTICIPATE IN HELPING THE STUDENT TEACHER BECOME ACQUAINTED WITH THEIR BUILDING. Suggest that the basketball team member take the student teacher to the gym, shower rooms, and equipment rooms. The drama-inclined pupil might share with the student teacher his knowledge of the auditorium, how and when it is used. A member of the safety patrol might help the student get a look at the building from the outside, its location with respect to traffic hazards, various exits in case of fire, the hallways and stairs. The student council representative might help the student teacher get a picture of where they meet, their relation to the central office, the meeting places of clubs. The class president might take the student

teacher on a tour of classrooms, demonstrating the various paths a pupil takes during a single day. Opportunities to have boys and girls share their school plant with newcomers are numerous.

HAVE SCHOOL PERSONNEL WITH SPECIAL INTEREST OR COMPETENCE SHARE IN THE PROCESS OF ACQUAINTING THE STUDENT TEACHER WITH THE BUILDING. Invite the custodian to take the student to the furnace room, to discuss the heating plant, to relate some of his tasks in keeping the building clean and healthy. The librarian is the person best fitted to help the student see the library as a part of the physical plant. The dietitian will gladly take time to "show off" the kitchen and cafeteria. The school nurse is especially able to help the student understand health facilities. A teacher with special interest in teaching materials, particularly audio-visual materials, will do a good job in acquainting the student with the center where materials are housed. The school clerk, or other office personnel, is best prepared to show the student where supplies are kept. A teacher interested in counseling will be a good guide to the location of records and central office files.

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF SITUATIONS WHICH ARISE EVERY DAY. When Bill comes in from the playground with skinned knees, have the student accompany him to the nurse's office. If John needs to make a phone call, have him invite the student to go with him to the office. If you are going to the office to check a child's record, take the student with you. If you need to locate material in the teaching-aids room or in the curriculum library, have the student help you. If Dorothy is preparing a report for social studies and is using art material, have her take the student with her to the art room. Take advantage of every opportunity to have the student teacher share in becoming acquainted with the physical plant and the ways that you use it every day.

If suggestions such as these are used by cooperating teachers, a student teacher will do more than *see* the physical plant. He will begin to realize that every aspect of the building is functional. He will be learning something about the variety of uses that can and should be made of special parts of the physical plant. He will become more conscious of interrelationships among all parts of the

school building. He will recognize the role assumed by pupils, custodian, specialists, and others in care and use of physical facilities. True, this type of activity for acquainting the student with the building will take more time spread over a period of days, but it is a more meaningful experience for the student and will pay dividends as that student begins to take a larger share in your work.

Assist Your Student to Become Acquainted with the School Program

Most schools have some activities which might be called all-school activities. Schools usually have some routine procedures which are common for all pupils and teachers. Many schools have some non-classroom activities which are available to all pupils. All schools have a course of study or record of curricular offerings which might be called an all-school program. Student teachers should be helped early in their contact with the school to become acquainted with matters that pertain to the entire program. Some illustrative suggestions are made here to help you in selecting kinds of experiences your student teacher might have in becoming acquainted with the total school program.

Plan for the student to observe the work of other teachers. Throughout the student teaching period, a student should have opportunity to observe the work of other teachers and of classes other than the one with which he is concentrating. It is particularly important that a student working in one grade of an elementary school get insight into the activities of teachers and children in grades above and below the one in which he is working. Likewise, it is particularly important that the high school student teacher gain some understanding of the work of other teachers within a department and teachers in other departments of the school.

Observations in different classrooms should be planned with the student teacher for the purpose of helping him get an overview of the class program offered pupils within the total school and of helping him to recognize the interrelatedness of parts of

that program. As is always good practice, you will need to plan such observations carefully with the student. For some student teachers, a minimum amount of observation in other classrooms may suffice because they have had many such opportunities prior to student teaching. For other students, it may be necessary to plan a great many observations at all levels of the school program because they have had almost no contacts with classrooms since their own schooling.

Planning with the student a series of observations in other classrooms involves also cooperative planning with other faculty members. This provides an excellent opportunity for the student teacher to participate in cooperative planning with a group of two or more teachers.

PROVIDE OPPORTUNITY FOR THE STUDENT TEACHER TO PARTICIPATE IN ALL-SCHOOL PROJECTS. All-school projects can be of great variety. Only a few are suggested here for illustration. While in a good preservice teacher education program a student will have had contacts with some all-school enterprises prior to student teaching, he will need to participate in such activities as an integral part of student teaching. Only in this way can the student realize the importance of all-school projects in the total program of an educational unit, see the relationship of such projects to teaching, develop a feeling for the responsibility individual teachers must assume if such projects are to be successful, and get the "feel" of the teacher's work "load."

Have the student participate in the planning, carrying out, and evaluating of a fire drill. Suggest that at some time during his student teaching he work with the school patrol long enough to analyze its organization and function. Provide opportunity for the student to participate in planning for and presenting all-school assembly programs. See that he has some chance to work with the staff of the school newspaper. If your school has a store or a cooperative, a student teacher will gain much by working in that center.

Whatever part pupils take in governing themselves and in determining school policy through a student council or other student government organization should be shared with the student

teacher through provision for his active participation with pupils and staff in this enterprise. The student teacher should also participate in any assigned responsibilities for before- and after-school periods, as well as any all-school activities in which teachers engage during the school day. Opportunity should be provided for the student to observe the work of several clubs of different types and to share in the responsibility for guidance of one club of special interest to him or to which he brings special competence. You also will want him to know the social program planned with and for pupils, so you will need to have him share in some social functions.

Significant all-school projects are planned, carried out, and evaluated cooperatively by all those persons involved in the enterprise. Therefore, when student teachers have opportunities to participate in such activities they are having experience which should contribute to two ends: (1) becoming acquainted with the total program of the school, and (2) improving skills in cooperative work with colleagues and pupils.

Help Your Student to Get Acquainted with Service Facilities and Personnel

The range and variety of services available to staff and pupils in a school will differ greatly from school to school. However, most schools have some services of a special nature. During steps taken to help the student become familiar with the physical plant, no doubt he has been introduced to some of the centers for such services: health center, library, lunchroom. A brief introduction is not enough if the prospective teacher is to perceive these special services, with their personnel, as vital parts of a total school program. The student will need well-planned and functional contacts with services to have them take on significance for him.

Among the more common of the special service centers in elementary and secondary schools are: the school library, the lunchroom, teaching materials center, health center or nurse's office, and the clinic or special service center for handicapped children. Where such service centers are not available, school staffs usually make provisions of other types. Whatever the nature of special services to staff and pupils, the student teacher should be guided

in planning his activities so as to have direct and active participation in a number of these special services.

HAVE THE STUDENT TEACHER SHARE IN YOUR RESPONSIBILITIES IN THE LUNCHROOM. Have him eat lunch with boys and girls sometimes, plan after-lunch activities with pupils, work with others—staff and pupils—in studying problems in relation to the noon hour and in planning ways of overcoming difficulties. Perhaps you will want to plan with him for his assuming major responsibility for the lunchroom at some time during his student teaching.

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF EVERY OPPORTUNITY TO HAVE THE STUDENT USE THE SCHOOL LIBRARY. This should be done both in preparation for his own work with pupils and in helping pupils to use the library. He can assemble materials related to given interests of learners and create, with them and the help of the librarian, special exhibits, bulletin board displays, or interest centers. He will gain much from an opportunity to work in the library with one pupil or a small group of learners engaged in special work. With the librarian he can provide the needed help for children and youth as they are locating and evaluating sources of information.

BE SURE THE STUDENT HAS A CHANCE TO BECOME ACQUAINTED WITH THE HEALTH SERVICES IN YOUR SCHOOL. Perhaps he should spend a full day or two with the school nurse in her office to discover the nature of her work and how she contributes to the welfare of boys and girls. Have him assist in the immunization program, in the routine weighing and measuring of pupils, in physical examinations, eye and ear tests. Guide him into using the services of health specialists in the instructional program in the classroom. Plan for him to make a home visit with the school nurse. Have him accompany the school nurse, or you, as contacts are made with social and welfare agencies in meeting the needs of boys and girls.

PLAN WITH THE STUDENT EXPERIENCES IN USING THE TEACHING MATERIALS CENTER. Introduce the student in a functional way to the services available in this center. At first it may be well to have

him work with you in ordering and previewing films, in securing displays, in discovering new and interesting materials on the market. Later he may assume responsibility for the selection and use of materials from the center in relation to particular activities he is engaged in with pupils. Help him explore sources for materials, bibliographies, instructions for common homemade materials. Plan with him for organized ways in which he might keep records of instructional materials and their sources. Maybe he will want to begin, with your guidance, a file of such sources.

HELP THE STUDENT TEACHER DEVELOP UNDERSTANDING THROUGH USE OF SERVICES IN THE CLINIC. Not all schools are so fortunate as to have on their premises a special education clinic. However, certain kinds of services are available to staff and pupils in almost all schools. These services may be had in some instances through a state department which makes available the services of school psychologists, specialists in reading or in speech and hearing, teachers for the homebound, special services for physically and mentally handicapped children. Or, they may be had, in other cases, from community social and welfare agencies. In still other school systems, such services are contracted for with local physicians and other specialists. Regardless of the unique nature of the special services offered in your school, help your student teacher to have opportunities to work with those services.

Plan with the student an opportunity to observe the psychologist at work with a variety of procedures in different types of cases: administering tests of several kinds, conducting interviews, using projective techniques, analyzing data on a case, writing records, handling referrals, or conferring with other specialists or parents. Have the student observe the guidance of activities in "opportunity rooms" or "special education classes" of various kinds. Perhaps the student can observe, and in some cases participate in, case conferences on individual pupils. Suggest that the student study a given pupil with you, analyzing records, observing and recording behavior, seeking help from specialists, making home visits, participating in joint conferences, and throughout the study, making appropriate use of special services. This experience will help him to see these services in their proper relationship to the welfare of pupils in the group and in the school.

Introduce Your Student to the Work of Consultants

The term consultants is used here to refer to those teachers who carry major responsibility for instruction in special areas of the curriculum: art, music, and physical education, particularly. Some school staffs also have consultants available in science, reading, and other areas. They may work in a number of different ways with classroom teachers: they may actually teach a special subject in all classrooms; they may seldom teach but engage in supervisory activities; they may be "on call" for assisting classroom teachers and pupils. Regardless of which pattern is followed in the use of consultants in a total school program, their services should be cooperatively planned to meet the needs of pupils. Problems of coordinating the services of consultants with work in a classroom and with the whole educational program of a school are many. Prospective teachers need a great deal of help in discovering desirable ways of working with and using services of consultants.

From the beginning, share with the student teacher your cooperative planning with consultants. Have the student observe the work of these specialists in a variety of situations. Perhaps it would be good for the student to spend a day full-time with one consultant to get a "feel" for the way this person contributes to the smooth running of the program. Arrange for conferences with consultants to discuss a special need of an individual or a group of pupils. Have the student participate in special enterprises for which consultants take major responsibility: art exhibit, operetta, concert, music contests, intra-mural athletic programs, playdays.

Plan with the student ways of making productive use of consultants in the ongoing activities within the classroom. Have the student share with part or all of the school staff in cooperative discussion of such matters as facilitating the use of consultants, scheduling time, taking care of routine matters, spreading services equitably. Invite the student to "sit in" when you and a consultant are evaluating your work in a special area. Perhaps the student will want and need some opportunity actually to teach with the guidance of one or more of the consultants. Since many teachers are called upon to work without the assistance of special

consultants, it seems advisable to provide as much experience for student teachers as is possible in the special areas of the school curriculum.

Assist Your Student to Become Acquainted with the School Administration

It is unfortunate that many teachers enter the profession with inadequate or incorrect concepts of the function of administration in the school program. That so many young teachers start their careers with a feeling of fear of those called administrators is tragic. You will want to help your student build understanding of and positive attitudes toward school administrators. A student who has had experiences in a school where administration exists for the purpose of improving the program and facilitating the smooth operation of a school will gain insight into the real function of administration and develop wholesome attitudes toward administrators. Even if you unfortunately work in an undemocratic administrative organization, it is important that the student have opportunity to study how administration affects teaching and teachers, and how difficult situations can best be met in the interests of boys and girls. In such situations especially does your student need guidance in understanding rather than blaming individuals, and in learning how to work with them most effectively. You can make very worthwhile contributions in helping the student understand, cooperate with, and use school administration positively.

Help the student develop understanding through association with the administration. Functions of school administrators vary from school to school, depending upon size of school, type of organization, and philosophy dominating the program. These functions range all the way from public relations promotion programs to purely routine clerical activities and include such responsibilities as curriculum development, guidance and counseling services, and supervision. To get a picture of the activities of a school administrator, a student might spend two or three days working full time with the building principal. Or, he might spend one hour a day in the principal's office, provided he does not spend

the same hour each day. In using either of these plans, it is important that the student do more than sit passively in an office and watch people come and go. His activities should be carefully planned with those in the office so that he will observe with some understanding and will receive some guidance in the interpretation of what he sees.

SHARE WITH THE STUDENT THE MANY WAYS IN WHICH YOU USE THE CENTRAL OFFICE AND THE PERSONNEL THERE. Acquaint the student during his first days with you with routine procedures related to the school office and administration: attendance records, requisitions for supplies, mimeographing and other stenographic procedures, student records. Take the student with you when you go to the office for mail, to secure data regarding a pupil, to arrange for parent conferences, or to plan for special events such as field trips and parties. Have the student sit in on your conference with the principal to consider some aspect of your work. Later in the student teaching program, the student may assume responsibility for many contacts with the principal related to his own work in the school. Encourage him to raise questions regarding the work of the principal. Display constructive, though critical, attitudes, and share the reasons for those attitudes with your student teacher.

Help Your Student to Understand Curriculum Work in the School

In a certain teachers college laboratory school not long ago a suggestion was made that student teachers be invited to join the staff in a study of the curriculum of the school. The staff rejected the suggestion. One is led to wonder why this decision was made. Were these teachers afraid that students might be critical of their work? Were they not proud of progress they were making? Were they actually ashamed of the human relationships existing? Or, were they unwilling to share a good experience with novices? Whatever the reasons were, it would seem inexcusable to deny prospective teachers the opportunity to be a part of the curriculum development program in a school. In fact, this is one area in which student teachers need much experience and in which

little real opportunity can be provided except during student teaching.

As was implied earlier in this chapter, employing officials indicate that a lack of ability to participate in cooperative curriculum work is one of the major weaknesses of recent graduates of teacher education programs. Since the selection and organization of experiences for the children and youth of a school are no longer in the hands of a few people at the top of a status hierarchy but are part of the job of every classroom teacher, it is imperative that students observe and participate actively in cooperative curriculum development. Such opportunity can be made available in any good school.

Have the student join you for regular faculty meetings in your school. At first, just take him along. Later, begin to share with him the nature of the meeting, its purpose and probable procedures, and your planning for contributing to the discussion at hand. Still later, perhaps the student can take an active and responsible part by preparing special materials, summarizing research data, reporting on an activity, raising questions, or making concrete suggestions. Plan with the student how he might participate in a faculty meeting. Invite his discussion of meetings when you return to the classroom or during your next conference.

Plan with the student for his participation in some active committee or study group of the faculty. Share with your student teacher an over-view of the various activities being carried on by individuals or groups within the staff. Invite him to participate in groups where you are active. Arrange for him to observe other groups. Plan for him to become an active member of at least one small committee or group working in an area where the student brings special competence.

Have the student participate in experimentation and research. Share with the student the experimentation which you are engaged in with your pupils. Have him work with you in determining next steps in your study, in gathering data, in evaluating results, in summarizing what can be learned from the experiment. Where two or three teachers are engaged in cooperative

experimentation, this provides an excellent opportunity for helping students see staff people work cooperatively, as well as for learning more about needed studies in education and how they might be conducted. For example, where two departments in a high school are exploring possible steps toward integration, or where members of a single department are making a study of course content or teaching methods, or where a representative group from the entire staff is experimenting with the construction of a common-learnings program, student teachers should be invited to become active observers or participants in these enterprises. In an elementary school where two or three staff people are exploring the merits of a block system for continuous learning, or where a social studies program is under scrutiny by a group of teachers, or where study is being made of the needs of children for arithmetic concepts and skills the student teacher will profit greatly if he can participate in these studies.

Curriculum development programs of significance involve not only staff members and administrators but also pupils and parents. Hence, such programs provide opportunity to share with student teachers cooperative work with all those people involved in curriculum planning. Plan for the student to have some contact with the school-community council, with parent-teacher planning groups, with parent-teacher-pupil-administrator planning groups. With your guidance, the prospective teacher can be helped immeasurably to feel the role of the classroom teacher in curriculum development programs.

Provide Your Student with Opportunity to Get Acquainted with Parent-Teacher Activities

Parent-teacher groups sometimes engage in activities not specifically related to curriculum building. It is important that student teachers have a chance to see the many ways in which parents and teachers may work cooperatively for the good of boys and girls. Regular parent-teacher organizations with their meetings and projects offer one such opportunity. Room organizations of mothers and/or fathers present another chance for students to see the contribution which can be had by cooperative work between

parents and teachers. Parent councils, sometimes made up of representatives from each classroom group; committees of parents and teachers organized for special purposes such as programs, parties, fund-raising campaigns; and study groups offer still other avenues for the student to see the value of parent participation in the school program. Plan with your student teacher to take advantage of such opportunities.

Your Student Teacher Should Become Acquainted with Guidance and Personnel Departments

Where a school organization is such that a special division of guidance is part of the administrative structure, students should have experience in working in that division. On the high school level, this may mean working with deans or special guidance counselors; it may mean working on the homeroom counseling program. In the elementary school, it may mean working with a visiting teacher or a special counselor. The nature of the organization of guidance services is not important here. What is important is that students have a chance to share in the work of persons who carry special responsibility for the guidance of pupils in dealing with their personal and educational problems.

The Custodian Is an Important Person—Your Student Teacher Should Know Him

Many a beginning teacher has blocked his path to happiness in a school by failure to understand the work of the custodian, or failure to appreciate the contribution this person makes to the school program, or by erring in the area of relationships with him. One of the important aspects of working well with the custodian is that of respecting him as an individual with ideas and rights. Another is that of understanding the job he has to do and the problems he meets in performing his tasks. Still another aspect is that of knowing when and how to seek the aid of this specialist. Student teachers need experience in working with school custodians for a variety of purposes. Take your student with you when you go to inquire of the custodian regarding the ventilator in your classroom. Have the student spend some time with the custodian:

traveling around the building with him; talking about his job; listening to what he says about teachers, principals, and pupils; discovering the things he does from hour to hour during the day. Plan with the student for making use of special talents and competencies of the custodian in the ongoing activities of the classroom.

Only a few of the many opportunities for helping students gain insight into the total school organization have been indicated. Creative classroom teachers will find many channels for students to have productive experience in this area of teacher activities. It should be remembered constantly that students will differ as individuals and that each student requires careful study to determine which experiences will be best for him. Situations will differ also. When students and staff work cooperatively in planning experiences, best advantage will be taken of all the total school has to offer.

EXPERIENCE WITH THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY

Current literature in both preservice and inservice teacher education devotes much space to consideration of the teacher's role in the school community. For what reasons do educators believe that teachers have a special role to play in the community? Why do they often decry the indifferent attitudes of some teachers toward community affairs? Is there justification for a strong feeling that teachers should be active community members? What is the justification? Why should teachers be any more concerned with community affairs than other citizens should be? It is well to keep in mind answers to these questions as you guide your student teacher.

Without quibbling over details connected with the exact nature of the teacher's responsibility, many sound reasons can be presented as to some of the purposes of active community participation by teachers: (1) The modern school curriculum is based upon real life needs of pupils; therefore a teacher should have firsthand experience in discovering what those needs are as boys and girls live in a community setting. (2) The school is an agency set up and supported by the community for the education of its youth;

hence it is important that the community share through parents and other lay members in the functioning of the school. (3) Many of the materials and resources for learning are found in the community; a teacher must be familiar with these in order to make use of them in planning with pupils for learning activities. (4) Teachers are very influential people in the lives of pupils with whom they work. They determine to some degree young people's attitudes toward mores and values, even modes of behavior on various occasions; therefore it is necessary for teachers to be sensitive to unique characteristics of the school community. (5) One of the major purposes of education through the school is to produce intelligent and participating members of a democracy, who assume responsibility for both group and individual welfare. Teachers, themselves, should exemplify this type of citizenship, not only by being good citizens but also by standing ready to help youth develop qualities of citizenship.

In a good preservice teacher education program students will have many opportunities to participate in community affairs throughout their college careers. They will have experience in conducting community surveys; in working with community groups interested in theater, recreation, and social activities; in observing the work of community councils of various kinds, such as governing councils, social welfare councils, church councils; in participating in adult activities, such as social-political study groups; in assuming leadership roles in existing organized groups for children and young people.

Your particular responsibility here is twofold: (1) to analyze with the student his background of experience and plan with him for those activities which will contribute to his special needs in working with and understanding the school community; and (2) to help the student perceive community participation as a part of the total role of the educator. The first of these jobs can be done through study of cumulative records and in conference with the student. The second job demands more initiative from both you and the student teacher.

Share with your student your participation in community affairs. Be frank with your student teacher in discussing your points of view on social and civic issues, not because you want to

win him to your point of view, but because you want to help him build convictions of his own. Did you recently read a book dealing with one of the major world problems? Invite the student to discuss it with you.

What do you do for leisure-time activities? Do you belong to any study groups, adult recreational groups, cultural groups? Invite the student to attend a session with you.

GO WITH THE STUDENT ON A PLANNED TOUR AROUND THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY. Help your student teacher to discover the kinds of homes your pupils live in. Stop and talk with children and youth on the street corners, in the drug store, in the bowling alleys. Find out with the student where your pupils spend their time after school hours. When the right opportunity presents itself, invite the student to go with you into homes of the community.

In connection with these activities and many others you might plan with the student, make sure that the relationship between the community participation and teaching is made clear. This you can do by using community experiences in planning the school program, by using resources of the community as learning materials with boys and girls, by demonstrating a healthy, wholesome personality as a result of your well-rounded activities, and by a host of other ways which you will easily discover.

Providing the student teacher with many opportunities to become acquainted with the range of your activities and guiding him in making best use of these opportunities will pay big dividends in the lives of children and youth in the next decade. This is one of the jobs which must be done now if persons are to enter the profession with insight into and productive attitudes toward the role of the school as a social institution. Sincere cooperating teachers will use every channel available, and create new ones, to help students grow in their ability to deal with the many tasks of today's teacher in the school and community. In assuming this significant responsibility, it will be well to keep in mind the principles referred to in Chapter 3. Be sure to consider the following ideas, also, as you guide students:

1. The central purpose of these experiences for prospective teachers is to improve the learning opportunities for boys and

girls. At all times, the student must be helped to direct his learning toward this end.

2. A program of activities for student teachers related to the school and the community is a splendid opportunity for giving direct guidance in helping students increase their skill and understanding of ways of working with people of all age levels and all backgrounds. Student teachers will need much guidance in analyzing relationships and in finding the most profitable ways of working cooperatively on common concerns. Such guidance does not just happen; it must be direct and forceful.

3. As individuals, students will differ widely in their needs, interests, and abilities in this area of experience as in all other areas. Obviously these differences should in part control the nature and extent of opportunity provided. No student teacher, of course, would engage in all the activities named in this chapter. Each, however, would be expected to have experiences in the various phases of the teacher's work.

4. Guiding the student in the wide range of the teacher's activities in the school and community does not call for additional and extraneous work on your part. Rather, since you are actively engaged in the proposed tasks as an integral part of your work, you need only to share your experience and to guide the novice gradually to assume intelligent participation in many and varied activities relating to the school and the community.

5. The student teacher's experience in a wide range of teacher activities will make a marked contribution to him as a person, a citizen, and a professional worker. While each activity is carried on for a specific purpose, the student learns as a whole being and he relates his specific learning to general principles. This makes it essential that you give him direct help in seeing relationships among activities and between his activities and his total growth as a citizen-teacher.

13

MAKING OBSERVATION AN EFFECTIVE LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Observing persons, things, and events is one of the ways in which the youngest child and the most mature adult learn. College students preparing to be teachers acquire much of their professional competence through observation. A large part of your work as a cooperating teacher is guiding students in their observation of the teaching-learning process. In previous chapters suggestions have been made on how you can help your students to learn through observation with reference to developing understanding of children and youth, increasing skill in planning learning experiences for pupils, improving ability in guiding learning, developing skill in evaluating the growth of learners, and gaining insight into the full scope of the teacher's work. Observation plays such an important role in the learning activities of future teachers that this chapter is included in order to focus attention on how you can help students have profitable observation experiences.

Because observation is an activity used by both teachers and students on a wide range of occasions and for a variety of purposes in teacher education, it is necessary at the outset to identify limitations applied to the treatment of the topic in this chapter. Per-

haps this can be accomplished by indicating what is included as well as what has been deliberately excluded.

The first point of clarification relates to whose observation is being discussed. The student is not the only one who uses observation as a way of learning, for you make many observations that help you gather data which form the basis of your guidance of the student. Observation is one of the major techniques you employ in developing understanding of the student and in appraising his progress as he works with you. Your use of observation for these and other purposes has been treated at appropriate places in other chapters and therefore is not discussed in the following pages.

The second point to be made explicit is really one of emphasis and organization. Throughout the student's program in teacher education, he is an observer of people and how they learn, of teachers and how they teach. At times his observation is the result of specific planning in college classes; at other times it is prompted by his general interest and is more casual. Frequently he is a member of a group making an observation; quite often, however, he is a lone observer in a situation. Since you are likely to be concerned more frequently with guiding a student teacher through observation, the discussion focuses on this task. Because you may also serve the teacher education program through demonstration teaching and the guidance of groups of students who observe this teaching, a special section at the conclusion of the chapter offers suggestions on this particular function.

One more point of clarification is needed. The term observation is variously interpreted, and perhaps you will be helped to avoid some confusion by knowing what definition is used here. It is the point of view of the authors that little observation is completely passive. Usually an observer is mentally active; he is to some degree involved if he is thinking at all about what he is seeing or hearing. It is also possible that an observer is overtly active in the situation being observed: a student teacher may be observing a child while he is helping him with his problems in arithmetic; a student may be observing small-group procedures as he walks around from group to group; or he may be observing a particular teaching skill while he is cooperatively teaching with you. In gen-

eral, the term observer is used here to refer to the student who is removed from the activity and watching (and reacting mentally) to what is going on. Observer-participant is used to refer to the student who is overtly participating in a teaching-learning situation while at the same time observing what is going on.

Background information on the purposes served by observation and the placement of observation experiences in the total program of the student are discussed first. The second section of the chapter deals with principles basic to your guidance of student teachers as observers and how you can apply these principles in your work. Your responsibilities with respect to demonstration teaching and the guidance of class groups observing your teaching are considered in the final section.

PURPOSES OF OBSERVATION IN THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

What can be achieved by your student teacher or any other students through observation is determined by their needs and purposes and the quality of the observation experience available. Among the purposes you are helping students to achieve, to which observation can make a contribution are: (1) to deepen the meaning of ideas, (2) to become oriented to the teaching situation, (3) to discover further needs, (4) to develop ability to evaluate teaching-learning situations, and (5) to arouse and strengthen positive attitudes toward teaching.

Observation Helps to Give Meaning to Ideas

When the student has little or no direct experience with an area of study, ideas will have limited and sometimes false meaning. (This happens, too, when the student's direct experience has been of poor quality.) Direct contact with ideas through observation widens and makes more accurate the understanding of those ideas. This applies to learning in both academic and professional areas. For example, the real significance of erosion or slum conditions in a community takes on new meaning through direct contact with

those conditions. In professional fields, ideas about children and teaching take on new meaning through observing pupils and teachers.

In the professional areas, which are the special responsibility of cooperating teachers, observation contributes to the understanding of individual learners and pupil groups, educational principles in the teaching-learning process, the function of administration in the school, the interlocking aspects of the total school program, and the role of the teacher in the school and community. All of these ideas will be clarified and expanded through observing in varied situations.

Student Orientation to the Teaching Situation Is Facilitated by Observation

When the student is ready to become associated with a particular situation as a student teacher, observation serves a second purpose, namely, to orient him to that situation. As he observes and works cooperatively with you, he gains understanding of a particular group of pupils, of the way in which educational principles are conceived and used in that particular situation, and, gradually, of the roles assumed by the administration, teachers, and laymen in the development of the curriculum offered by one school. Such orientation both adds to the student's understanding of teaching and is necessary to his intelligent participation in your classroom and school.

Needs May Be Identified through Observation

If observation is meaningful to the student—that is, if it is appropriate to his stage of readiness, entered into with clear-cut purposes, and effectively guided—many questions will arise in his mind as he observes. Why was this done? Why didn't the teacher . . . ? Why do children . . . ? Should a teacher be expected to . . . ? What would I do in such a situation? How can they be helped? Don't their parents have some responsibility? What is the school's job in working with parents? These and a

host of other questions come to mind as a student observes and shares in the work of teaching. Thus, new purposes are created; needs to which the teacher-to-be should give attention are pointed up. This is a third important function of observation.

Ability to Evaluate May Be Developed through Observation

The fourth purpose of observation, contributing to ability to evaluate teaching-learning situations, is significant for several reasons. First, it is through a critical study of what the student sees that he develops standards of what constitutes good teaching and the implications of those standards for the function of education in society. Then, too, it is through the evaluation of observed teaching-learning situations that the student can be helped to use basic principles as guides in assessing what has taken place and in determining what is needed to provide a higher quality of learning experience. Educational principles become something more than verbalizations. They serve to help the student focus on the learning experience and the actions and reactions of learners rather than on the teacher. The quality of experience provided for children and youth becomes the important thing. Evaluation of teaching, both one's own teaching and that of others, becomes more objective. Evaluation becomes a less frightening and hazardous experience, for both student and cooperating teacher, as the bases of evaluation are clearly identified and are used as guides in suggesting what next steps should be.

Observation May Contribute to Developing Positive Attitudes toward Teaching

Observation of high level teaching-learning experiences also contributes to the development of interest in teaching as a profession and dedication to the cause of education. This function of observation is often forgotten. The college adolescent tends to be an idealist, an individual who wants to contribute to making the world a better place in which to live. Working with children and youth in ways that reveal how learning takes place, how be-

havior changes, how the innate urge to develop one's capacities is affected by the guidance given, and how important the teacher's role can be in influencing the thinking of children and youth, appeals to college students' idealism. There is provided through observation and participation an opportunity to channel that idealism toward dedication to the cause of education as a bulwark of a free democratic society, and toward personal commitment to provide a high quality of learning experiences for boys and girls. Observation presents one kind of opportunity to foster the enthusiasm for teaching that makes it possible for a teacher to rise above discouragements inherent in teaching and to find in a child's happy smile or a youth's decision to stand by sound values an adequate reward for long hours of careful planning and guidance of experience.

PLACE OF OBSERVATION IN THE PROGRAM OF TEACHER EDUCATION

To accomplish the five purposes just discussed, observation must be an integral part of the student's work throughout the college program. Whenever his previous experience has not provided adequate readiness, observation may well become an essential part of academic or professional courses. This applies to work in any of the college years. Early in the college program, observation of persons, things, and events may focus primarily on exploring to find out *what* is involved, while later observation experiences have for their purpose the building of deeper meanings as to the *why* underlying the *what*. In like manner, professional attitudes may be strengthened through observation as a part of professionally-treated content courses, student teaching, and other courses in professional education. Early contacts with teaching-learning situations may develop the initial enthusiasm which causes the student to elect to prepare for teaching, while later contacts will add to satisfaction with that choice and build the basic values and attitudes needed by teachers.

Observation to become oriented to the situation in which the student will work as a student teacher relates more specifically to a particular part of the teacher education program, the point in the program at which the student engages in student teaching. Observing to learn how to evaluate teaching-learning situations

objectively, while an essential aspect of student teaching, is also part of courses in professional education which precede and follow student teaching. Courses dealing with various instructional areas, the curriculum in general, instructional materials, the learning process, and other professional problems will doubtless include some observation of pupils and teachers at work and an evaluation of teaching-learning experiences.

How much observation is provided at any time and what situation is observed will vary with the particular needs of the student. It should be remembered that observation of a complex teaching-learning situation is difficult even for experienced teachers. Some of the values which can be derived from observation can be realized only after the student has been more directly involved in teaching activities. As the student assumes some responsibility for guiding the learning of boys and girls, he gains insight into what to look for and how to view it in the complex situation. This suggests that a unique contribution can be made by observation after student teaching; that observation should be arranged after as well as in preparation for student teaching. As an integrating experience, observation helps the student to relate the various parts of the teaching-learning situation and affords him opportunity to look more intensively at those aspects of special interest or at those in which he needs to develop greater competence.

PRINCIPLES BASIC TO YOUR GUIDANCE OF STUDENTS IN OBSERVATION EXPERIENCES

Whatever the purposes of observation and wherever it may come in the program, there is need for careful guidance of the student in planning for, carrying out, and evaluating observation activities. Six principles which will help in your guidance of students—your student teacher, other individual students, or class groups—in observation experiences are discussed in this section.

A Uniform Amount and Kind of Observation for All Students Is Not Feasible

Stated positively, this principle points to the need to differentiate observation experiences to meet individual differences of students in ability, needs, interests, and purposes. The amount of

observation provided throughout the college program and the length of time spent in any one observation experience should vary from student to student. Depending upon previous experience, some students will find it necessary to remain with a single teaching-learning situation and work actively in it if the experience is to have meaning for them. Others will find it meaningful to make several shorter observations distributed over a period of time and perhaps in different places. In like manner, the student's purpose in observation conditions the extent of time given to the observation. If his purpose is to gain an over-all impression and to explore in a general way some of the activities of the teacher, a more informal and less intensive type of observation may adequately meet his needs. If, on the other hand, he wishes to study the effect of two ways of working with children or youth, a longer period of observation in two situations is indicated. These illustrations also suggest the need to differentiate observation experiences as to kind or type.

The principle of individual differences suggests the fallacy of a prescribed number of hours of observation as a regulation governing the beginning work in student teaching. If you are working with a college that advises that students observe for the first three days or two weeks before beginning to share in teaching, study the needs of your student teacher carefully and be prepared to modify the general recommendation to meet those needs, and to explain your reasons should the college inquire.

Observation of a Situation Should Be Continuous to See How Activities Progress and Learning Develops

Closely related to the foregoing principle is that of continuing observation of any one situation over a period of time to see how activities progress and learnings develop. This guide builds on the basic principle of continuity in learning. If the purpose of the observation is to understand the teaching-learning situation and to study the results of activities engaged in, it is necessary to stay with a situation over a period of time.

There is little difficulty in implementing this principle when your student teacher works with you daily, and especially when

he can be there for the entire day. If he can be with you only part of the day, working in the same instructional areas over a period of time has some advantages for him over rotating the various activities during the hours that he is with you. The student will gain more by working in a single area over a longer time period than by working for short periods in a number of different activities, even if this means that he will not work in some areas. The final decision must of course take into account both this principle and the particular needs and abilities of the student.

Additional problems are evident if your student's program does not permit him to be with you daily. If he is so unfortunately scheduled as to be with you only two or three days out of the week, special provision will need to be made to acquaint him with the activities which take place when he is not present. Whether you can provide the needed continuity for any but the most insightful student is a question which you will need to face in agreeing to work with a student whose program does not provide continuous contact with the pupils.

Implementation of the principle with a class group or individual students observing in your room suggests an invitation to observe several days or more. Student groups may not always find it possible to do this as a class. In such instances individual members of the group may observe consecutively over a period of time, while the class comes to your room from time to time. The individual observers help the group to understand the developing situation.

Benefits Gained from Observation Are Increased by Active Involvement in the Situation Observed

Continuity of observation in a situation makes possible implementation of another principle, namely, that active involvement makes the observation more profitable to the student. This guide, like the others, is the application of a basic principle of learning to the process of observation. In any situation, the individual learns only those things to which he responds and reacts, and, correspondingly, reacts to those things in the situation which

have meaning for him. Learning is the result of the active involvement of the individual. Therefore, in observation, as in any other learning experience, it is important that the student become actively involved in the ongoing activity. What he learns and his interest in what he observes are increased in relation to his activity in cooperation with the teacher in charge.

The student's understanding of what you are trying to accomplish and how you propose to accomplish it, together with specific responsibility for assisting with parts of the work, help him to become actively involved as an observer-participant. This guide points to the importance of the student teacher becoming a participant as soon as he enters upon student teaching. (How class groups can become observer-participants is discussed on pages 390–391.)

The Value of Observation Is Increased in Direct Relation to Preparation for That Observation

An individual can be actively and intelligently involved in a situation only to the degree that he has effectively prepared for it. Whether the observer be your student teacher or someone else, it is important that his preparation include study of: (1) information on learners, (2) the projected work plan, (3) the instructional materials to be used, and (4) a statement of your educational principles.

By making such materials available to the student whose observation you are to guide, you will help him to become acquainted with the situation and to have some understanding of what you are trying to accomplish and how you plan to go about achieving it. What he sees as he observes you and the pupils at work will be guided to some degree just by studying the materials indicated above. Discussion of the materials with you will help to sharpen the focus, which will be different for different students according to their individual concerns and problems and in terms of the questions raised for each individual by the materials studied in preparation for the observation.

These four facets of preparation apply to observation of any aspect of the teacher's work. For example, observation of a

staff meeting will be more meaningful if the student knows something about the staff members, the agenda for the meeting, materials to be used, and the general point of view of those responsible for leadership. In like manner, preparation for observation of a conference with a parent, a meeting of the Parent-Teacher Association, or a session of the Board of Education might well include acquaintance with the personnel involved, the areas of discussion, descriptive materials distributed in advance or to be used at the meeting, and the basic point of view of those responsible for leadership.

Observation, in General, Should Follow the Sequence of the Whole, Part, Whole

The field theory of psychology and the concept that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts suggest the next guide for observation experiences. This principle emphasizes the need to look at the total teaching-learning situation before examining a part of it. True, as has been noted at other points in this volume, any teaching-learning situation is complex. Accordingly, it may seem advantageous for the beginner to start by studying a part of that complexity and gradually move from the simpler part to the more complex whole. The difficulty is that in most situations the real meaning and worth of the part can be judged only when it is seen in relation to the whole. Teaching is like a mosaic; a piece may have little meaning or seem quite grotesque until seen in the total pattern of which it is a part. For example, the quality of questions asked cannot be judged adequately until their purpose is known and it is determined whether they achieved that purpose. Questions can be evaluated only in terms of the total enterprise. Or, to give another illustration, the number of pupils who participate in a class period and the particular individuals who are overtly active can easily be determined. But what these facts mean and how they may be evaluated can be determined only by looking at the entire experience.

It becomes necessary, then, first to help your student teacher or any other student or group of prospective teachers who may observe in your room to gain an over-view of the teaching-

learning situation before critically studying any part. From a study of the whole of the experience being observed, parts emerge about which the student raises questions or in which he has special interest. These can then be studied more intensively, but always as they fit into a larger structure.

Observation Should Focus on Implementation of Educational Principles rather than on Techniques and Devices

A technique or a device is a method or an instrument that is used to reach desired goals. It is of worth only as it contributes to those goals, not in and of itself. Whether it does contribute depends upon the goals sought, the individuals by and with whom it is used—the particular learners and their teachers—and the way in which it is used. This suggests that a technique may be most appropriate and useful in one situation with one group of pupils and totally useless or even harmful with another group or in a different situation with the same group. For example, the use of committees may be a most valuable learning experience for pupils who have basic skills in problem solving and group work, who are working on a problem that is important to them, and who have adequate materials available. Where these elements are lacking, the use of committees may be unwise, and learning of a higher quality may result if teacher and pupils work as a class in solving the problem.

Providing for individual differences in reading by organizing the class into small groups may be productive where there exist distinct levels of readiness which can be grouped and where children not working with the teacher in a group can carry on profitable independent activities. Such is not the case, however, if there are so widely varied needs that grouping does not bring together children with common needs. The technique cannot be judged to be of value in and of itself. Its worth is determined by the degree to which basic educational principles are implemented through its use. In judging work observed it is important to focus on educational principles. This guide to observation is rooted in a basic educational concept, the significance of transfer of learning. The underlying idea or fundamental generalization

resulting from observation focused on principles is useful in a number of similar, yet different, situations.

APPLYING THE FOREGOING PRINCIPLES TO YOUR GUIDANCE OF STUDENT TEACHERS IN OBSERVATION

What do the foregoing principles mean when applied to your guidance of a student teacher in observation? What do they suggest the student should observe? What kind of preparation should the student make? In what way should the student be involved during the observation? What should be done in guiding the student to make use of what he has observed? These are some of the questions on which help can be found through consideration of the principles just discussed.

What Should the Student Observe?

The principles point to the fact that what the student sees when he observes depends upon his purposes and the meaning the situation observed has for him. In your role of teacher educator, your chief function is to arrange the learning environment so that the student has a chance to observe situations which fit his particular readiness. To do this, you and the student need to study his mastery of the understandings and competencies required of teachers. You need to know, in other words, what meanings the student brings to a situation. You need to know what to help him see, so as to increase his understandings and to open up new horizons. Hence, the specific kinds of opportunities you provide for student observation depend upon what you know about the student and your conception of goals you are assisting him to reach. Provision should be made at various points in the teacher education program, however, for all students to observe the range of activities of the teacher, variety in quality of teaching, and teaching-learning situations based on different philosophies of education.

Observation should cover the essential activities of the teacher. The teacher-to-be is interested in and needs to be-

come acquainted with the range of the teacher's activities—what he does and how he works with children or youth; how he relates himself to other teachers and to the total school organization; how he participates in the administration of the school and the effect of administration upon the teacher's work; how he works with parents; what his activities are in the community as a citizen and as an educator; how he contributes to his own growth and to the further development of his profession through participation in the work of professional groups and organizations. The activities of a teacher are many and they cannot be comprehended quickly, certainly not in a single period of student teaching.

Early interests focus on "what is teaching all about" and "what does the teacher do with children or youth." Gradually interest moves from an exploration of what is involved to a more intensive study of "what does it take" and "what must be known and done" to carry out the various activities. Observation and study of individual learners and pupil groups become important, as do understanding of the community, what previous experiences these pupils have had, what instructional materials are at hand or can be secured, how parents and home backgrounds affect what is done. Through more intensive study, the student comes to see the work of the teacher as extending beyond the walls of the classroom, and there is readiness to observe and participate in the teacher's activities as they relate to colleagues, administration, parents, and the community. Finally, the growing interest expressed by "can I do it" and "do I have what it takes," which characterizes the student's concern during student teaching, changes to "how can I do it better" and "what else do I need to know and understand?" Observation then becomes important as a means of eliminating weaknesses and of further developing special interests and competence.

As programs of teacher education are now developing, most students will have had observational experiences before starting work in student teaching. You will want to learn about those experiences and try to determine what they have meant to your student teacher. This is one basis for deciding what observation experiences will mean most to him as you begin work together and what kind of help he will need if his observation is to be

meaningful and in the direction desired. The student's natural involvement in the ongoing activities of the pupils is another basis for determining the observation experiences your student teacher should have. You also will want to include your student teacher in your activities not directly involving children or youth. Encourage him to share in activities relating to parents, the total school situation, the administration, the community, and local and national professional groups.

OBSERVATION MAY INCLUDE BOTH HIGH QUALITY AND LESS COMPETENT TEACHING. Observation of both high quality, artistic teaching and that which is less skillful has a place in the student's program. You, of course, will do the most effective and artistic job of teaching that you can as you work with your student. Most teachers try to do the best work of which they are capable. But, like doctors and lawyers, teachers vary in their ability. Observing the effect upon learners of less competent teachers may give added stimulus to the student's desire to become a skillful teacher and may deepen his convictions regarding the significance of the teacher's task.

For example, value can be realized for some students through observing another student teacher. The competencies and the problems of a fellow student are sometimes closer to those of the student teacher than are your own. By observing his peer at work he may be able to see more readily what his own difficulties are and how they may be worked on. Valuable as this experience may be for your student teacher, it should be undertaken only if the student observed is comfortable in the situation and wholeheartedly agrees to be observed by his peer.

When and how often your student teacher should observe less competent teachers is something to be decided by the student and you or other teachers working with him. What is the student's particular need or problem? Will it be served best by observing in a less productive situation? These are the questions that must be answered. If the answer is in the affirmative, one other precaution must be taken. Unless the student is well along in his professional program and can soundly evaluate a teaching-learning situation, he needs particularly careful guidance in critical evaluation of the less competent teaching he observes.

TEACHING BASED ON DIFFERENT PHILOSOPHIES OF EDUCATION SHOULD BE OBSERVED. Observing and studying the effects of contrasting concepts about teaching and different educational points of view is an important experience for your student teacher. Such observation and study can do much to help him clarify educational values and develop commitment to a sound set of educational principles. It may be that your principles and those which the student holds are different. For the sake of continuity in the experiences of pupils, it may be necessary to ask the student to work in terms of your values. To help him better understand what his values would look like in action, it is useful on occasion for him to observe a teacher working in terms of values he holds.

Seeing teachers achieving the same goals through the use of widely different methods may contribute to the student teacher's understanding of the importance of working by principle rather than by technique only. Such observation can contribute to his critical study of methods and techniques and discourage his blind acceptance and imitation of specific devices.

What Preparation Should Be Made for Observation?

Helping your student teacher to become an intelligent observer-participant is achieved primarily through three channels. Perhaps the most important of the three is planning cooperatively, through which, as noted in Chapter 9, your student is helped to understand what you plan to do and how it relates to what is known about the pupils and to your educational values. The student working with you is further helped to prepare by your attitude toward and willingness to answer questions which arise in his thinking as he considers, alone or in cooperation with you, what he observed and what should take place next. Your encouragement of a questioning attitude on his part is important, especially his desire to know *why* steps are taken and particular action proposed. The third way of helping and encouraging your student is to make available to him the materials which provide background data—pupil cumulative records, your

written plans, and instructional materials which will be used by the pupils and by you.

You can help your student, then, to prepare for observation of a teaching situation by seeing that he . . .

- Studies available data about the learners to be observed—their backgrounds, abilities, interests, and needs.
- Understands the block of work of which the activities to be observed are a part—reviewing the block or unit plan and, when possible, the daily plan for the work to be observed.
- Is acquainted with the instructional materials to be used.
- Reviews the basic educational principles or point of view of the teacher who is to guide the work.

What Should Be the Student Teacher's Activities during Observation?

When adequate preparation has been made for the observation, what does the observer do during the observation period? Your student teacher as an observer may participate overtly part of the time if, from the beginning, he has been a teaching partner, cooperating with you in the ongoing activities in your classroom. What should his activities be when he is not thus participating but is observing what you and the pupils are doing?

Taking notes during the observation period. Widely diverse recommendations are made regarding the taking of notes or engaging in writing of any kind during the observation period. Some teacher educators hold that any kind of writing is distracting to pupils and teacher in charge and also to the observer, who fails to see fully what is taking place when he gives part of his attention to writing. Others advocate the use of specific check sheets or manuals for making recordings.

In order to avoid inaccuracies most individuals need to record exact statements made and activities engaged in by the learners and teacher. In fact, the very phrasing of a statement or a response may give the real clue to a pupil's feeling or understanding in a situation. It becomes important, then, to record such statements exactly. Frequently the particular sequence of state-

ments or events is also significant and it becomes desirable to record items as they occur. This suggests a rather full recording of what takes place. The two kinds of recording currently available which provide the most complete picture of the work observed, and at the same time free the student to give complete attention to observing what is taking place, are *electrical sound recording* and *telecasting*. The first of these is entirely feasible at the present time. In fact, some cooperating teachers and their student teachers regularly employ tape or disk recorders in making sound records of teaching-learning situations. These records can then be played back and serve as the basis for analysis by the student and the classroom teacher. The advantages of such exact records are many and they should be exploited.

Both cost and inadequate experimentation with telecasting make it a less feasible technique for recording classroom procedures at the present time. However, it is probable that within a few years many schools and colleges will be equipped with closed circuit television. When this happens, it will be possible to telecast what is going on in a classroom. With such telecasting, students will be provided a variety of new opportunities to deal with records. For example, students may be in the classroom observing at the same time that the situation is being telecast. Later recasting of the film as an accurate sound and visual record will be the basis for study of the situation observed. On the other hand, class groups may actually make some of their observations by viewing the live telecast as it is relayed to another location in the building.

The making of telecasts, as suggested by the above comments, will very likely prove more feasible for use with groups of observers. In considering what your student teacher can and should do during observation, you may wish, however, to experiment with the use of sound recordings of total class discussions, of conferences with individuals or small groups, of activities and discussions of pupil committees. The use of tape and other sound recordings affords a promising and challenging area of exploration in the observation and study of classroom situations.

Despite the strides that are being made in the development of such audio-visual materials, manual recording of what is observed in a teaching-learning situation is and will continue to be

an important activity of student teachers as they observe your work with pupils. When the purpose is to secure a rather exact picture of the total situation, a *running record* of things said and done, *manually recorded,* can profitably be made by the student teacher as he observes. Such a record is often easier to make while observing than are selected notations. To be selective, the observer, in addition to seeing what takes place, must exercise judgment as to what is important enough to record. His attention is thus divided.

Further, it is often difficult, even for the experienced teacher, to know the real import of an episode until that episode is seen in the total setting. Take, for example, the teacher who seems to be effectively guiding a group of third-graders in planning their next block of work, noting on the board each proposal, considering with the group the reasons pro and con for that proposal, helping the class to weigh values and make a well-considered choice. This seemingly high quality experience in cooperative planning took on a totally different value when their selection of work was followed by the teacher's statement, "That would be an interesting piece of work to do. We'll begin on it after a study of the planets." Significant comments or parts of work observed can be accurately determined only in the setting of the total experience.

To assure accurate statements which also show the sequential development of an experience and the relationship of parts to the total enterprise, it is suggested that the observation period be used primarily to collect data for later evaluation—that the student, when not participating overtly, make a running record of the activities of pupils and teacher. When full attention is focused on recording what one sees, the major problem to be met is one of building skill in recording rapidly and in writing while at the same time looking at the unfolding situation.

The following excerpts of "running notes" made by students are illustrative records of work observed at different grade levels. The first was made by a student teacher who was learning to make such records and was able to note without too much difficulty what was said and done—the second-graders spoke slowly and their sentences were short. The student observing in the second situation—the junior high school English class—found the

recording more difficult as the pupils spoke more rapidly and often teacher or pupil made rather lengthy comments. As will be shown with two kinds of type, he recorded key words or phrases and filled in the complete thought after the observation. The words in regular type show the recording made during the period of observation, while the italicized words are those filled in through recall. The . . . . . indicate comments and action which the student was unable to record. The third running record was taken by a student who had well-developed skill in manual recording.

EXCERPTS FROM A SECOND GRADE DISCUSSION OF STORY FOR MOTHER ON MOTHER'S DAY

Miss J.: Yesterday we talked about what we could write in our story for our mothers on Mother's Day. Today we were to write our story. What would you like to put in your story to mother?

Jay: Mother helps us when we are hurt.

Ken: Mother goes to the store.

Carol: Mother sews our clothes.

Albert: Mother buys the family new games.

(Teacher prints each child's statement, then a child reads)

Nancy: Mother gets us ready for school.

Frank: Mother keeps us clean.

Miss J.: Yes, she does. And I know your mother has a job with all the boys she has.

Drema: Mother bakes a cake for the Brownies.

Mike: Mother goes to the P.T.A.

Miss J.: That's right. Many of our mothers were at the last P.T.A.

. . . . . .

Miss J.: Let's look at the story. Who can read it for us?

Carl: All of the sentences begin with "Mother."

Miss J.: What can we do about that?

Jay: We can put "Our mother" in some of the sentences.

Sharon: We can put "Her" or "She" in some.

Pam: We can just put "She." You don't say, "Her goes to the store."

Miss J.: We can each change some of the sentences as we write our own stories. Each of us can choose the sentences that we want to have in the story for our mothers. If you want to write a different sentence in your story—one that is not on the board—I will help you.

EXCERPTS FROM A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH CLASS: COOPER AND HIS WRITINGS

. . . . . .

Teacher: What about all these quarrels? *They evidently had* nothing to do *with* domestic affairs.

Pupil: *They were* political affairs.

Teacher: *The* politics of *the* times. Cooper, *you remember, had* spent a *little* part of his life just previous to *all these* difficulties in Europe. *Did you get* an impression about that?

Pupil: *Yes, in* France he had a chance to defend his country *and that was* what *the* quarrels were about.

Teacher: *I* don't think *your* account goes into detail . . . *Cooper* felt critical toward *his* own country . . . *You may be* willing to criticize *your* own country *but* when somebody else criticizes *it* . . . *Do you recall any* other author who criticized America . . . ?

Pupil: Dickens *was quite* sarcastic about America . . . *just* after *the* war . . . *When he* went back to England *he* wrote sarcastic things about *American* senators.

Pupil: I . . . (*missed what was said*) Pupils laugh.

Pupil: *I think he* wrote the bad side of America.

Teacher: Did he criticize our morals or our manners?

Pupil: *Our* manners.

Teacher: Very largely *our manners. And* how did *the* people feel about D*ickens* after he had gone home?

Pupil: *People* thought it *was* kind of mean of him to have *gotten all that* kindness shown *to him and* then *to* go back and write something disagreeable.

Teacher: *It is* not what guests *usually* do. *A* more recent English writer *has* criticized us *rather* sharply. *What do you* know of Kipling's criticism of us?

Pupil: *An* English writer always thinks he knows a little more *than he does.*

Pupil: I don't . . . (*missed this*) *That is* not exactly a fair attitude.

Pupil: Isn't it *just about* the attitude *that* Americans took toward *the* criticism of our manners by Cooper?

. . . . . .

Excerpts from a Fifth Grade Discussion of Plans for Assembly Programs

Miss E.: Let's turn our thinking to plans for our assembly programs for this year. There have been traditions regarding assembly programs but no traditions that cannot be changed. Tradition has it that we present two assemblies—one dealing with some phase of our work and the second having to do with some historical event.

Let's get our ideas out by listing them—then we will discuss each in an effort to make a judgment and set up plans. Jeff (playing with Yo-Yo), we would like your ideas.

Jeff: A lot of people ask me about the newspaper and how we work it out.

Martin: But we want to make it better than last year's assembly on the newspaper. All of the children were laughing at once—(there was no special reason for laughing).

Janet: Let's do a Gilbert and Sullivan operetta.

Jeff: Aw!

Miss E.: What are we asking for?

Jeff: Ideas.

Miss E.: We will judge the ideas later.

. . . . . .

Fred: We could do a radio program.

Miss E.: That's another possibility, but in thinking about such a program keep in mind that it would have to be our own material.

Martin: We could combine several of the suggestions in one—do a radio program of a historical sketch.

Miss E.: Martin is noticing something about the various suggestions that have been placed in the left-hand column. What do they suggest?

Tony: They are means of conveying an idea.

Miss E.: Yes, they are the forms that might be taken to carry out and express the ideas given in the right-hand column.

. . . . . .

Charles: We could make it a funny thing.

Miss E.: Yes, we could. I believe Charles is making another kind of suggestion. We have in the right-hand column things that our program might be about; in the left-hand column forms that could be used in discussing these things (radio, dramatization, etc.). What is Charles getting at by his statement?

Sue: The humor of the thing.

George: Ways to get the idea across to the audience.

Martin: But we said that we would talk about ideas first.

Miss E.: You're right, Martin. Who has another idea?

. . . . . .

You and your student teacher will not always find that such a complete running record will best meet your needs. After you have studied the whole teaching-learning situation, certain aspects will emerge as being of special interest or concern. When this is the case, and depending upon the problem or area of study, your student may find it useful to record particular episodes. These may be in the nature of *anecdotal recordings*, *"running notes" for short periods*, or *special notations*. The anecdotal recording, for example, may be one or more statements like the following which the student records during the observation:

> Paul (often inactive) is sitting on cold sidewalk. "There's a keg that no one is using. It might be fun to roll over. Or, I can help you use these stilts."

> Keith breaks wheel of truck he is pushing. He is about to put it away in cupboard and slip broken wheel in his pocket. "Let us look at the truck, Keith." (Miss Wells)
>
> Keith: "Just tapping the wheel won't fix it."
>
> Miss Wells: "It seems to be a glue job. We might put it in the Repair Cupboard in the office until we have time to mend it. The plan here is to always let a teacher know when something is broken. Then it can be fixed so that the children can use it again soon."

The student may wish to raise questions during his conference with you about some of the recorded anecdotes; they may suggest to him a promising implementation of an educational principle or a way of meeting the problem on which he is working. The running record of selected aspects of work may be very similar to an anecdote or it may cover more than a single episode and yet not all of the lesson. Such a recording, for example, may relate to those times when you and the pupils were planning cooperatively or to things said and done that were directly related to implementation of the principle of individual differences. Special notations refer to those designed to gather evidence on a particular problem or concern, and lending themselves to such

recordings. For example, you and your student teacher may wish to gather evidence on the way in which certain pupils relate themselves to group situations. Through a specific code which you devise it would be possible to record the role or roles taken by pupils and the frequency with which selected individuals take a certain role in a group situation. Working from such data it then becomes important to see the individual in action—his effectiveness in carrying out his role, and whether or not it is an appropriate role in the set of circumstances.

Whatever the nature of the recordings made by your student teacher as he observes you at work with pupils, he will need help in developing skill in seeing and recording at the same time. And underlying that skill must be clear recognition of the kind of recording that will best serve his needs.

Building skill in recording. No one other than a court stenographer, of course, could make a complete record of everything said and done during a teaching-learning experience. Taking a running account, however, is a skill and like any other skill is developed and improved with practice. As the illustrations show, the student can do a very substantial job of recording. There will be times, as these records reveal, when a statement is lost or because of the overt participation of the observer only a word or two is written to recall the statement or act of participation. Then, too, what the observer can record is contingent upon the nature of the work observed. If pupils are working in a number of small groups, it is impossible to do more than record what led to the group work and then follow the particular activities of a single group for a period of time. The notes will show the time spent with a group and the movement of the observer to another group. If you have more than one student teacher, part of the preparation for the observation may be to agree that each will record the activities of a different pupil group. As individuals gain skill in recording, they will discover abbreviations and short-cut statements that are useful.

Your student teacher will also need help in making anecdotal and other recordings. You can provide that help by together (1) clearly identifying the purpose of the observation; (2) deter-

mining the kind of record most useful in achieving the stated purpose; and (3) pointing out strengths and limitations of the record made as you use it in studying the teaching-learning situation and planning next steps. It is important also to keep in mind that recording is a skill, and, like any other skill, develops through use. Your student should not be discouraged if his first efforts are not all that he would like them to be.

BUILDING POSITIVE ATTITUDES TOWARD RECORDING WHAT IS OBSERVED. Your attitudes, those of your student teacher, as well as attitudes of pupils, must be considered in determining the nature of the records to be made of observations. It is always important that the person being observed know that a record is being made and that he understand its nature and purpose. When the observer makes a carbon copy of his record for the person observed, fear of what is written can be avoided. More detailed recording of just what happens is generally less worrisome and disconcerting than the writing of occasional notes. If you and your student agree that the observation record will include only an account of what happens, then you know that what the student is writing is not an evaluative statement. Without agreement on this kind of record, when the student takes occasional notes you may well wonder what happened to cause him to do so. Did he see something that he thought was good? Or, was it something that he questioned? The value of the exact record in making a sound evaluation of the learning experience, in seeing points which need to be kept in mind in taking next steps with the pupils, soon becomes evident as running records or anecdotal or other notations are reviewed following the observation.

Some students and teachers are concerned about the effect of extended writing on the attitude of pupils. First, there need be no concern as to whether pupils see the record, as would be the case when occasional evaluative notes are made. The running record or anecdote tells nothing more than what the pupils know and have been experiencing. When they ask why the observers "write so much," they should be helped to understand that these young teachers-to-be are interested in what the pupils have been

doing and want to think about what took place. The record helps them to recall things more exactly, and this is just exactly what the record does.

A second concern, and one which often arises in the mind of the student teacher, is what the pupils' attitude toward him will be when they see the cooperating teacher, in the role of observer, take copious notes. This fear can soon be dismissed when the team relationship of student and cooperating teacher is established. The running record is useful in planning next steps, whether the cooperating teacher or the student is carrying major responsibility for guiding the learning experience. When the student teacher first begins work with you he logically is the observer-participant in the teaching team and, therefore, makes the running record of the work as it develops under your guidance. The pupils, having seen him take detailed notes when you were teaching, accept your making such a record when the student carries more direct teaching responsibility. Observation in student teaching is a two-way process—the student observes you at work and you observe him.

Deciding whether to use check sheets or manuals as observation guides. What has been said previously regarding the need to study the sequence of events in a teaching-learning situation, and to note exact statements, suggests that check sheets, manuals, and other forms of observation blanks may prove a hindrance rather than a help. Trying to use them while observing requires time to locate specific items which often detracts from seeing what is taking place. Even when the observer is very familiar with the form, it is sometimes impossible to locate accurately on the blank an event or a reaction. Furthermore, what calls forth a given reaction at one point may, as the work develops, prove to merit a quite different judgment when it is seen in relation to what follows.

Blanks and check sheets often ask for data which have little meaning unless seen in light of the total situation. For example, blanks often ask for a statement regarding the amount of available blackboard space. This can be accurately estimated, but the estimate means little. The nature of the work under way must be considered. If the fifth grade, responsible for the school

store, is working on store accounts, there may be need for extended blackboard space. If, however, the same group is planning an advertising campaign, large tables or floor space may be more important.

Factors such as these suggest that if observation manuals or other forms for recording what takes place during the observation are used, they need to be reviewed critically and adapted to the needs of the particular students involved in the observation. At best it would seem that they can only be suggestive of items to be observed, and might better be referred to during the period of preparation in clarifying goals (if this is needed) or as a resource in evaluating what took place after the observation. Their limitations must be kept constantly in mind.

How Should the Results of Observation Be Used for Effective Learning?

Observations and records of them are of value only as they are put to use in helping students better to understand the teaching-learning process and to improve their own teaching. You and your student teacher will use the results of his observations of your work in the classroom as one basis for determining the nature of his participation and beginning steps in teaching so that a reasonable degree of continuity is provided for the pupils. Both of you will study the record as part of your planning and carrying out next steps in the learning experience of boys and girls. The student teacher will often find that he can assess his own strengths and weaknesses as he studies his observation record.

In studying the records with your student you will also reflect on your own strengths and limitations when you have been responsible for the guidance of the learning of pupils, and thus continue to grow in your own ability to provide high quality experiences for learners.

Using the results of observations frequently involves the evaluation of the teaching-learning situation observed. The importance of this step in working with a teacher-to-be should not be minimized. The section which follows deals with this aspect of the observation process.

COOPERATIVE EVALUATION OF THE TEACHING-LEARNING SITUATION OBSERVED

What is involved in making the evaluation of work observed a profitable learning experience for the student teacher? How critical of your work, or the work of other teachers, should your student teacher be? How can you deal with basic differences in educational values between the student and the teacher observed? Suggestions on how these and related questions may be answered are made in the pages that follow.

Evaluation Should Allow for Careful Study of Data Recorded

Evaluation of a teaching-learning situation observed requires careful study of the data bearing on the situation. Such evaluation should be made only after those involved have individually and independently studied the data recorded and have secured necessary supplementary data. At times, such study may require the checking of data or the securing of additional data. The latter may involve a further look at pupil records or the teacher's plan of work, or identification of questions to be raised with the teacher observed, so that reactions and evaluative judgments will be more accurate. For instance: How shall we interpret Jim's behavior? Is there anything in his record that will help explain what he did? Miss Crespo didn't expect to work on circle graphs as a way of showing how individuals spent their allowances. Her daily plan dealt with bar graphs. Does her long-view plan indicate that she expected to work at any time on circle graphs? Was the modification of her plan for the day desirable? Provision for study of the recorded data is just as important for you and your student teacher as for a college class following a period of observation.

Such study of the recorded data points to the importance of making judgments on the basis of known facts if it is at all possible to secure them, and of indicating that reactions are tentative when the facts have not been obtained. For the prospective teacher, this is an important learning. At best, observation is to a degree subjective. Each observer perceives in the observed situa-

tion, and the recorded anecdotes and "running notes," those things he is able and ready to see. Perceptions are conditioned by the individual's experience background and his goals. Every effort should be made to be as objective as possible in the study of the recording and to gather all facts available.

When you and your student teacher are to plan cooperatively for the next day's work with the pupils, evaluation of the work carried on each day must be done at the close of the day. It is suggested that rather than start the after-school planning conference by at once evaluating and reacting to the work of the day, time be allotted for both you and your student teacher to review independently the notes on the day's work. The half hour or more spent in this way, before you meet to evaluate what took place and make plans for the coming day, will be time well spent and your work together will move forward with definiteness and dispatch.

In passing, it may be noted that study of the recorded data prior to evaluation of the work observed is equally important for the college class or other group of observers. True, the procedure requires time. But a few observations well prepared for and soundly evaluated are worth more than many observations carried through with little real thought and consequent limited learning.

Evaluation Should Be in Terms of Basic Principles of Education

The principles for guiding observation, discussed in an earlier part of this chapter, include the suggestion that evaluation of data collected during observation be made in terms of basic principles of education rather than techniques or procedures. The educational principles held become the standards for judging what has been seen. Whose principles should be used—those of the student or the cooperating teacher? How is it best to proceed when students have not developed a set of principles to use as evaluative criteria?

USING EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES AS EVALUATIVE CRITERIA. A teaching-learning situation is not "good" or "bad" in and of itself.

Its quality is determined by the degree to which the fundamental principles governing the learning process are effectively used to achieve the desired goals. For example, take the principle that the individual learns in terms of his purposes and the meaning a situation has for him. Contrast the probable implementation of this principle in two quite different situations. In one classroom pupils are engaged in abstract study of the three forms of percentage problems. In the other learners are working with percentage in such situations as figuring income tax, increase in earnings in government bonds, discounts, bank interest, tax on borrowed money, baseball batting averages, increases in cost of living.

In terms of the work observed, what probable meaning does the first situation have for the learners? When experiences are not related to circumstances that have meaning for pupils, their purposes must lie outside the area of study—to please the teacher, to make a good grade to satisfy parents, or to pass the work so as to stay with their classmates. What they learn from this experience is to please their teacher, if that is their purpose, and in so doing they may memorize the formula for each case with little or no real understanding of what it means. They may pass tests involving memoriter use of the knowledge with little or no ability to select and apply the correct processes when they later need to deal with a real situation calling for a percentage calculation. Studying the data of the observation, it becomes necessary, in applying this principle as a criterion of evaluation, to look for evidence that the work was or was not meaningful for the pupils; that there was a common base in teacher and pupil purposes, although the teacher may have had additional purposes in mind which were not yet a part of the thinking of the learners.

Consider one other illustration. What do the recorded data show regarding the implementation of the principle that each individual is unique and provision must be made for differences in needs and potentialities? Holding this principle in mind, the data are explored to seek evidences of its effective implementation and points at which more complete provision might have been made. Was the suggestion that Billy try to locate pictures of trains which could be used in the report of his committee a good way to recognize his mental limitations, while other mem-

bers of the group gathered the factual data from encyclopedia, science books, and the like? Why was Norman expected to have his report ready to hand in when Sue was given another day to complete hers? These and other questions will be answered as the data recording what took place are studied in light of the principle of individual differences.

Using educational principles as guides in evaluating work observed, you and the student teacher study the running record for evidence relating to the extent and nature of the implementation of each principle. The following is an excerpt from a student teacher's running account or record of his cooperating teacher's guidance of a fifth grade at work on siphoning a plant aquarium. It illustrates the evaluation arrived at as the student teacher and cooperating teacher used the educational principles listed below to study the record, first independently and then together. The numbers in the margin of the observation record refer to the number of the principle, and the + or — symbol to its positive or negative implementation. The combined symbol ± suggests both positive evidence of implementation and the thought that the principle might have been carried out more fully.

Educational Principles Developed by the Student and Cooperating Teacher

1. We learn most efficiently what is related to our purposes and interests.
2. We learn best when we take an active part in what is to be learned. (Cooperative planning and carrying out of work)
3. Repetition assists in learning when it has meaning for the learner, and relates to his goals.
4. Each individual is unique and provision must be made for differences in needs and abilities.
5. Understandings and generalizations are the bases for action in new and different situations. (Experiences should lead to generalizing.)

Analysis of "Running Notes"—Discussion of Siphoning the Plant Aquarium

Evaluation			*Record*
S.T.	C.T.	Miss P.:	Donald and Mary have been working on getting fresh water into our aquarium—and getting the

Evaluation S.T.	C.T		*Record*
+1	+1		stale water out without harming the plants. I take it you have been having some difficulty, since the old water is still there.
		Donald:	We sure have. We can't make the hose pipe work.
		Miss P.:	Any suggestions for the committee?
		Charles:	The bucket should be lower than the window ledge.
		Mary:	What would that do?
		Charles:	I don't know but I've seen people take gasoline from cars that way.
+2	+2	Miss P.:	Have you tried it for yourself?
		Donald:	Yes, Mary and I tried it with a bowl and bucket but it didn't work.
		Miss P.:	Could you show the class what you did?
			(Committee sets up experiment for class to observe)
+1	+1	Donald:	Another thing we want to know is why we are supposed to suck the tube to get the water to flow.
		Mary:	And what makes it keep on running after we've stopped sucking the tube?
+1	—1	Miss P.:	That is another good question to think about, but not now. Our question now is why the bucket has to be lower.
			(Committee successful using a bowl and bucket)
		Larry:	If you put the bucket up higher than the bowl, would the water flow into the bowl instead of the bucket?
		Jack:	We could try it and find out.
+3	+3		(Children change positions of vessels several times)
+5	±5	Warren:	It looks like it always flows into the one that is below.
		Miss P.:	Don't you think we could all agree with Warren about that?
		Susan:	Yes, but what is it that makes the water run into the bucket?
		Miss P.:	It is the air pressing on the water.
+1	+1	Donald:	How can air push the water up into the tube?

		Becky:	I don't see how perfectly still air can push the water out of the bowl.
	+4	Miss P.:	There is another experiment which might help you to understand better. Sally, will you please fill a glass with water and place a card over the top—then turn the glass upside down.
		Paul:	Why doesn't the water push the card off?
+5	+5	Charles:	I know. The air is pushing on it.
		Miss P.:	Which pushes harder, air or water?
+5	+5	Paul:	I see. Air can press even stronger than water.
			(Children experiment further with the bowl and bucket)
		Donald:	When the air pushes on the water it goes up through the tube—but not until we suck the tube does it come out into the bucket. We still haven't found out why we have to suck the tube to make the water start flowing.
		Mary:	And why it continues after we stop sucking—you have to stop fast so you don't get the dirty water in your mouth.
	±1 ±2	Miss P.:	Look at the clock—let's work on Donald's and Mary's questions tomorrow. Maybe some of you will have some hunches to suggest to us—and to try out and see if they are correct.

Both the student and the cooperating teacher view the work as providing opportunity for the children to express their interests and to deal with them (the first principle). The cooperating teacher, however, questions the response to Mary—". . . another good question for us to think about *but not now.*" Was this the best way to provide for Mary's concern? Both teachers recognize Warren's attempt at generalizing as important (the fifth principle), while the cooperating teacher wonders if the youngsters should have been helped to make a more meaningful generalization relating to water seeking its own level. Take one other principle, the second, and again it is seen that student and cooperating teacher note the positive way in which children are involved through both the experiments and consideration of their questions. The cooperating teacher by the ± symbol opposite the closing statement raises a question as to whether sufficient help was given regarding next steps; maybe this is a cue for student and cooperating teacher to plan together how to begin

work with the children the next day. Points such as these will be discussed when student and cooperating teacher compare their analyses of the lesson.

Deciding whose principles should be used as evaluative criteria. When the educational points of view held by the observed and the observer differ, whose principles are to be used as evaluative criteria? In answering this query, it should be recalled that there is a substantial and growing body of evidence in the field of learning with which all teachers and teachers-to-be should be acquainted. Where there is wide difference in principles relating to the learning process, it would seem that those differences should be checked against the literature bearing on the psychology of learning.

When you know that your student teacher comes to you with a tentatively developed set of educational principles, it is helpful to both of you to compare your values. You will probably discover that you hold many principles in common although you may state them in different words. At some points you may differ. The differences should be accepted as resulting from honest convictions of each individual and as an opportunity for both to test the real meaning and worth of each position. Difference in point of view is not to be interpreted as a weakness on the part of the student, or of yourself, or as something to change as quickly as possible. True, either of you may change your belief on a given point as a result of working together, but at no time should your attitude be characterized by the thought that "I am right and the student will need to change his belief." It may well be that he will change his thinking, but that change should result from seeing and being convinced that your value leads to learning that he holds to be important for children or youth. You may also change your thinking as a result of critical evaluation of your work, because you hold your principles tentatively and have an open mind to learning more about the whole teaching-learning process.

While recognizing that either may have a sound position, there is still another factor that needs to be considered. Should you and your student teacher each teach, using his own set of values? If the principles are very different, what would this do to chil-

dren or youth? For example, what would it mean if you held that the learner's purpose is central while your student teacher believed that children and youth are too immature or too uninformed to have sound purposes? It is not wise to try to use two opposing sets of principles in teaching. Therefore, a choice must be made as to whose principles will be used when teaching and in analyzing that teaching. Consistency and continuity are important for most learners, especially for younger children. Another solution must be sought to the dilemma of difference in point of view.

Since you are the person who, in the last analysis, is responsible for the growth of the pupils, and you are the member of the teaching-team who will work with them over the entire year, it would seem sound to propose that both you and your student teacher use your principles as guides. It must be clear that the decision is based on the factors of continuity and not on a belief that your position is of necessity correct. Your student teacher will see the reasonableness of this decision. But in accepting the added difficulties which the use of someone else's principles entails, the student teacher also has a right to expect that you will allow time and will help him to consider how a class or activity would have been carried out differently if both of you had been implementing the position he holds. For the student teacher who does not see the significance of the learner's purpose, it would be necessary to show how the teacher would open an area of study when cooperative planning with learners was not held to be an important or valid procedure. This means taking time in conference, both in analyzing what took place today and in planning for tomorrow, to note where his principles were not operating and what would have been done differently if they had been used as guides.

USING THE TOTAL SET OF EVALUATIVE CRITERIA BEFORE EVALUATING IN TERMS OF A SINGLE PRINCIPLE. The importance of seeing a part of the teaching-learning situation in the total setting was discussed earlier and developed as a basic guide in observation. In like manner, in using principles to evaluate what was observed, it is advisable in most instances to test the implementation of the total set of principles before selecting one or more for

special study. Using the total set helps to locate particular principles needing attention. While each principle is a complete and discrete idea, the quality of the educative experience is determined by the degree of implementation of the principles as a unified whole.

NOTING IMPORTANT CONTRIBUTING FACTORS WHEN EVALUATING OBSERVATION IN TERMS OF PRINCIPLES. Many forms and blanks prepared for use in recording and evaluating an observation refer to such factors in the teaching-learning situation as the teacher's voice, speech, vitality or general health, the use of the textbook or other instructional materials, the kinds of questions asked, and the specific methods and procedures used. What attention is given to such factors in teaching when evaluation is in terms of educational principles? All such factors are important, but the real test of their significance is the way in which they are used so that basic educational principles are implemented. Fundamental principles governing learning and the values sought through education in a democracy are the universals which apply to all teaching. The particular method or instructional material or kind of question asked will vary with the particular circumstance and the given teacher. These factors, then, are considered in the evaluation process as conditioning elements which have helped or hindered in the full implementation of educational principles.

For example, lack of books to challenge a range of reading abilities may have been the underlying cause of the inadequate provision for individual differences which the observation record reveals. Or, the use of "yes" and "no" questions, inquiries that included an implied answer, or the repeated use of questions until the proposal desired by the teacher was forthcoming may point to the reason why pupils had little or no real share in planning their experience and why their purposes were secondary rather than central. There is a place for the "yes–no" question and for the teacher to ask a series of questions. Whether the situation observed was the correct place is determined by the way in which the questions asked facilitated or hindered the operation of basic principles of learning and by the educational values sought.

The same is true of factors of personality—enthusiasms, sense of humor, vitality, voice. They are important only as they contribute to or work against a high quality learning experience. While most educators recognize the value of enthusiasm, vitality, and a pleasant voice in the teacher, each can probably recall the quiet, serious teacher with a not-too-pleasant voice who helped learners to have fundamental character-building experiences because of his very deep and genuine concern for them and his respect for each as an individual. It is the particular combination of traits that matters and the reactions of the learners to them: the meaning these traits have for pupils and the way they see them in relation to their goals. When educational principles are made the central criteria of evaluation, these other important conditioning elements are seen in their proper perspective.

EVALUATING WORK OBSERVED WHEN PRINCIPLES HAVE NOT BEEN ESTABLISHED. Your student teacher may not have been thinking and working in terms of principles. When this is the case, it is helpful to begin the evaluation of work observed by considering questions which came to the mind of the student in studying data he recorded during an observation. What is he curious about? What does he question? As questions are raised and possible answers sought from evidence found in the record, the student can be helped to look for the underlying reasons for thinking a positive or negative contribution has been made to the pupils. As this is done, principles emerge which can then be used as criteria in looking at subsequent observation data. The following notations on the student teacher's observation record reported on page 375 are illustrative of the notes which you might make in preparing to discuss this observation with your student teacher if he is not yet articulate about educational principles.

ANALYSIS OF "RUNNING NOTES"—DISCUSSION OF SIPHONING THE PLANT AQUARIUM

Is this a real concern of the youngsters? For how many?	Miss P.:	Donald and Mary have been working on getting fresh water into our aquarium—and getting the stale water out without harming the plants. I take it you have been having some difficulty, since the old water is still there.

Donald: We sure have. We can't make the hose pipe work.

Miss P.: Any suggestions for the committee?

Charles: The bucket should be lower than the window ledge.

Mary: What would that do?

Charles: I don't know but I've seen people take gasoline from cars that way.

Miss P.: Have you tried it for yourself?

Donald: Yes, Mary and I tried it with a bowl and bucket but it didn't work.

What would have been gained by saying, "If you will show us what you have been doing, maybe we can offer a suggestion."

Miss P.: Could you show the class what you did?

(Committee sets up experiment for class to observe)

Donald: Another thing we want to know is why we are supposed to suck the tube to get the water to flow.

Mary: And what makes it keep on running after we've stopped sucking the tube?

Miss P.: That is another good question to think about, but not now. Our question now is why the bucket has to be lower.

(Committee successful using a bowl and bucket)

Larry: If you put the bucket up higher than the bowl, would the water flow into the bowl instead of the bucket?

Jack: We could try it and find out.

Was this repetition fruitful?

(Children change positions of vessels several times)

Warren: It looks like it always flows into the one that is below.

Would this have more meaning if related to "water seeking its own level"?

Miss P.: Don't you think we could all agree with Warren about that?

Susan: Yes, but what is it that makes the water run into the bucket?

Miss P.: It is the air pressing on the water.

Donald: How can air push the water up into the tube?

Becky: I don't see how perfectly still air can push the water out of the bowl.

	Miss P.:	There is another experiment which might help you to understand better. Sally, will you please fill a glass with water and place a card over the top—then turn the glass upside down.
They are growing in power to generalize—	Paul:	Why doesn't the water push the card off?
	Charles:	I know. The air is pushing on it.
	Miss P.:	Which pushes harder, air or water?
Let's see whether any, and how many, use the generalizations correctly tomorrow.	Paul:	I see. Air can press even stronger than water.
		(Children experiment further with the bowl and bucket)
	Donald:	When the air pushes on the water it goes up through the tube—but not until we suck the tube does it come out into the bucket. We still haven't found out why we have to suck the tube to make the water start flowing.
	Mary:	And why it continues after we stop sucking—you have to stop fast so you don't get the dirty water in your mouth.
Was this too hurried a close? What do they see as the job at hand and how to go about it? Had we better start tomorrow with setting up a plan of work?	Miss P.:	Look at the clock—let's work on Donald's and Mary's questions tomorrow. Maybe some of you will have some hunches to suggest to us—and to try out and see if they are correct.

The student teacher who had observed this lesson had also studied the cooperating teacher's plan. His first question at the conference was, "Why did you change your plan and have the children do all of the experiments?" Starting with this point of inquiry, discussion such as the following might help a beginning student teacher to think in terms of principles.

C.T. Yes, I did change my plan—because children learn in different ways. In the kind of work we were doing today, Paul and Warren can deal directly with ideas. Some of the other children need to experience an idea to see what it really means. In fact, that is why I asked Sally to experiment with the tumbler of water—she needs to see things very concretely.

S.T. I see what you are saying, but wouldn't it be concrete for Sally, for example, if *you* did the experiment?

C.T. Let's test that idea. How about your own experience here. Do you find there is any difference between teaching and watching me teach?

S.T. Yes, it looks so easy when you do it.

C.T. What makes the difference?

S.T. I don't really know just what is involved until I try to do it.

C.T. Why wouldn't the same be true of the children—better learning results where individuals are actively involved in what is to be learned.

S.T. Yes, I see, it wouldn't be the same for Sally if you did the experiment.

C.T. How can we work tomorrow so that everyone is actively involved —not necessarily overtly, as was the case of Sally and others who engaged directly in the experiments? People can become just as involved mentally. Paul and Warren, for example, certainly were thinking along on the problem and were involved.

S.T. That seems like a contradiction. Sally and I need to do it—to get directly involved for the best learning. Paul and Warren are O. K. if they are involved thought-wise only.

C.T. Let's see if it is a contradiction. Are you a ball fan? Do you get very much involved when you watch a game on television?

S.T. I certainly do—friends say one would think I belonged to the team.

C.T. You're not overtly involved in that case. What is the difference between the ball game situation and your work here?

S.T. I guess it's because I have played ball and I know a lot about the game. I know what it takes.

C.T. And isn't that just what you said about teaching—only in reverse —you didn't know what was involved except by doing?

S.T. You are saying that what you bring to the situation—what you have already experienced and understand—affects whether you need direct experience or not.

C.T. That's right and that is why as teachers we are always trying to learn more about the youngsters. In making a decision regarding direct experience we have to keep both ideas in mind—active involvement and the particular needs of individuals. Let's put these ideas to work now in planning for tomorrow.

. . . . . .

Where students are hesitant about raising questions because of a limited background of experience, as may be the case if they

have had few pre-student-teaching laboratory contacts, they may be helped by having a few questions to guide their study of observation data.

- Was the experience important to the children? All of it? If not, what parts? Why?
- What were several things that they learned?
- Did they all learn all of these things?
- When will they be likely to use the things learned? In what ways?

The questions will need to be kept simple and geared to the backgrounds of the students. The approach through questions, either those you raise or those of the student teacher, must of necessity focus on the parts of the total situation to which the questions refer. Starting with the aspects being questioned, it is important to help your student see all aspects of the experience which bear on the query. If you suggest questions, such as those noted above, it is useful if they are phrased to invite the student to look at the complete record in seeking evidence which gives the answer.

YOUR ROLE IN THE GUIDANCE OF GROUP OBSERVATIONS IN YOUR CLASSROOM

What has been said in this chapter thus far concerning your guidance of student teachers in observation activities is pertinent to your role in working with groups of college students who may come to your classroom to engage in observation. The same basic principles apply to this aspect of your work as a teacher educator. However, additional factors need to be considered in examining how you may best work with college classes and their instructors in providing opportunities for group observations. These additional factors are discussed in this section. In your capacity as a classroom teacher being observed by a group of college students you are frequently referred to as a demonstration teacher.

What Is Demonstration Teaching?

To demonstrate means to show by way of example. As a cooperating teacher you do demonstration teaching when you carry

major responsibility for the teaching-learning situation in which your student teacher is an observer or an observer-participant, or when a college class (or part of a class) observes you at work with boys and girls or carrying out other professional responsibilities.

DEMONSTRATION TEACHING CONSISTS OF THE ACTIVITIES IN WHICH CHILDREN WOULD NATURALLY ENGAGE IF THERE WERE NO OBSERVERS. The only thing that makes one class a period of demonstration teaching, and another not, is that in the first instance there happen to be persons looking on and observing what takes place. When this conception of demonstration teaching prevails, what is demonstrated is the regular ongoing activities of the pupils. This is an essential concept if the needs and interests of learners are to be safeguarded and made central in all teaching. It is equally important if future teachers are to observe the best possible teaching for given pupils. To continue regular work when there are observers is the only thing that can be done if pupils have a *bona fide* share in planning their work. Their purposes and what is significant for them must determine what goes on in the classroom, observers present or not.

How can you live by this concept and still meet the needs of the observing students? Their purposes are equally important to them. If the observation experience is to be really meaningful to them, their purposes cannot be ignored. What should be done about requests from the college for a specific kind of lesson or for work on a specific problem or area of study? The concept of continuity of learning for children and youth suggests that it would not be in the interest of the pupils to inject a drill lesson when the group is at the stage of opening an area for study and as yet sees no need for drill. Nor would it be in the best interest of boys and girls to demonstrate cooperative planning with pupils when plans have just been completed and the group is ready to carry out the first steps planned. Change from normal next steps with pupils would not be in the best interests of college students either. They would see a group of learners who were confused by the unexplained change, who accepted the change out of fear, who were accustomed to a teacher-leadership that meant teacher-dictation, or who asked why the change was being made and thereby

focused on the change rather than the drill work which was desired. No one of these alternatives meets the needs of the observing group.

What, then, can be done to meet the needs of and to provide continuity for college students as well as for children? The key to the problem resides in helping the college group to locate an ongoing situation which meets their needs.

DEMONSTRATION TEACHING IS A COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE INVOLVING A TWO-WAY EXCHANGE OF MATERIALS. The preceding discussion suggests that in fairness to the pupils and to the college students, no fundamental change should be made in your work with learners when you are asked to provide a demonstration experience. But more than a refusal is indicated when your situation cannot meet a demonstration request. Your position will be better understood and your willingness to cooperate recognized if you will share your unit or block plan with the college group. Indicate the nature of the present work in which the pupils are engaged and when you expect them to be working on the problems of special interest to the college class. Extend an invitation to the class to start their observation now and continue with the group for the several days until the particular work will be a natural activity of the youngsters. The intervening days can be profitably used to become acquainted with the pupils and the ongoing situation. In fact, if certain college teachers tend to bring groups to your room, it is often helpful to share your block plan with these instructors, with an invitation to indicate aspects of the plan which the groups would probably like to observe. You can then let them know as you approach those parts of the work.

Another way of meeting the need to bring together the college class and the pupil group dealing with situations of concern to the students is for college instructors to share their block or unit plans with one or more cooperating teachers. Areas of study to which observation would contribute can be identified, with the request that cooperating teachers notify the college group when they are about to engage in work that bears on the particular area. Such a two-way exchange of plans is basic to bringing the right groups together at the right time.

What Special Considerations Are Necessary in Working with Groups of Observers?

Although the same basic principles apply to your work with groups of observers as to your guidance of student teachers in observation experiences, it may prove helpful to consider how these basic principles relate specifically to making group observations effective learning experiences.

Observations should be flexibly scheduled to meet the needs of college students. Colleges that require observations to be scheduled months in advance, or permit each college instructor only a fixed number of observations per semester, make it almost impossible to meet the needs both of pupils and of college students. In doing this, the college creates the same problems as those faced by the teacher who must order audio-visual materials at the close of one year for use the next year. Observations, like other instructional resources, must be selected and used to meet specific needs.

When observations are arranged flexibly and according to need, it may be helpful to have an especially designated member of the college staff—possibly the coordinator of laboratory experiences—responsible for clearing the scheduling of observations. But much of the work relating to initial decisions about scheduling the observation must be done by the two teachers involved, by you and the instructor working with the college class. The coordinator may assist you by knowing the nature of the work under way in your room and by having a record of observations already scheduled. But just where you are likely to be in the development of the work at a given time only you can know as you work from day to day with the pupils. Only you can judge whether it is in the best interests of the pupils and of yourself to have a group observe at a particular time. The coordinator, knowing your general load and special responsibilities, may be a helpful counselor to you in making the decision. To assume that the decision should be governed by an equal distribution of observations among teachers in a school is to confuse equality with identity. The same is true in scheduling or making available the same number of observations for all college classes working in a given area or for all students

within any class. Like any other learning experience, observation is an individual matter and must be planned and developed with reference to the continuity of learning of the students.

GROUP OBSERVATIONS SHOULD BE SCHEDULED TO ALLOW FOR CONTINUED STUDY OF AN EXPERIENCE PUPILS ARE HAVING. When the purpose of group observation is to study how learning takes place and the role of the teacher in guiding learning, more is to be gained from observing several days in one situation than observing the same amount of time in a number of different situations. In some programs of observation students make one observation in the first grade, one in the second, and so on through the various grades. What can the student really understand about the learning process, even as applied to one area of instruction, from a single observation? How can he come to know the pupils? How can he see how an activity develops or learning takes place? Frequently it is argued that the student needs to observe in each grade level. The principle of continuity suggests that it is more important to understand what takes place at one grade level than to have a sketchy and less meaningful contact with all groups.

You may question having a class group or several college students observing in your room over several days. Will it make your work more difficult? Will it be good for the youngsters? These questions will be answered as you test the principle of continuity with a class group. Most cooperating teachers find that they react positively to continued observations. Nervous tension is lessened for you when students understand the situation better because of a longer period of study in it, and when you are released from the pressure of having your work judged by a single experience. The best of teachers has "off days" and you cannot be at your best in every period of work. Boys and girls, too, become acquainted with the observing group and accept them in a way that even young children find difficult when observers are present for only one period.

YOU SHOULD SHARE IN THE PREPARATION OF THE COLLEGE CLASS FOR OBSERVATIONS IN YOUR CLASSROOM. When college class groups observe in your room, they need your help in preparing to observe intelligently and to interpret what takes place. Like your student

teacher, they need to study background materials acquainting them with the pupils, your educational point of view, your plans, and the instructional materials to be used. While it is possible to send this information in writing to the college class, it is far better for you to meet in conference with the students, thus allowing for discussion of the data.

College students who come to observe in your classroom with some understanding of you, the pupils, and your work together are likely to profit more than students who come unprepared. Also, you can be of greater help to observers if you know something about them and their purposes in observing. You should be familiar with the educational point of view being developed in the college class and how the observation relates to the work of the class. Sharing in the preparation of the college class, therefore, calls for a two-way exchange of information and for cooperative planning of the observation experience.

LEARNING THROUGH OBSERVATION IS INCREASED BY INVOLVEMENT IN THE SITUATION BEING OBSERVED. It is not easy to involve a class or group of observers as active participants in the situation they are observing. It should be recalled, however, that involvement does not necessarily mean overt participation. The apparently quite silent observer may be very actively involved mentally and emotionally as he watches you and the pupils work.

This was true in the case of a group of ten observers who were carrying out a program of voluntary observation and were present when an eighth grade group and their teacher were deciding on the next area of study. Having seen the teacher's block plan, they knew of her interest in working with the group on a proposed subway for the growing industrial community—a proposal currently under discussion in the local press. While the teacher and pupils were planning together, it became evident that the pupils' real interest was in a bridge project to span the river and connect their city with a community in Canada. This, too, was being discussed in the local newspapers.

That the ten observers were actively involved in the situation is attested to by their continuing observation on a voluntary basis for a period of about three weeks, their sharing of news items with the pupils, the questions raised after school with the teacher in

charge, and the acceptance by several of the invitation to join the teacher in preparing the next day's plan at the close of each day. True, for some of these students the initial purpose was to see whether a teacher really let youngsters share in selecting what they would work on, and what was done when youngsters wanted to do something different from what the teacher had planned. While these purposes may have been somewhat negative, they served as strong motivating forces and bases for developing other purposes important to the individuals. They were purposes which were meaningful to the individuals involved and purposes which gave focus to the observation and very real involvement in it.

Another type of involvement is illustrated in the instance of a college class working on problems of curriculum development. This group included a student born in Germany, a fact made known to the fifth grade teacher when a study of her block plan showed that the children were working on an assembly program dealing with Christmas in several foreign lands. Willingness to bring pictures, music boxes, and other materials used by the German people in celebrating Christmas soon brought to Miss Kauffman, from the pupil committee responsible for this part of the program, an invitation to work with them. This she did and, planning cooperatively with the fifth grade teacher, she became a resource person and guide for the committee. Sharing her planning with her college classmates, answering their questions, accepting and rejecting their suggestions, her responsibilities with the pupil committee became the focus of active involvement for the entire college class. Her problems were their problems, her success their success, her inquiries the kinds of questions with which they wanted help as part of their college course in curriculum development.

The type of involvement illustrated in these two instances can happen only when students are acquainted with the situation and with what the teacher and pupils are trying to accomplish.

AN ACCURATE RECORD OF WHAT IS OBSERVED IS ESSENTIAL TO DESIRABLE FOLLOW-UP DISCUSSION BY THE GROUP. It was suggested that your student teacher should make recordings during observations so that both of you would have an accurate record to use in your analysis of what was observed. The same might be said

for groups of observers. In planning for their observation you and the college class should agree on the nature of the record to be taken and the use to be made of it. Once the plan is made, the recording may be the responsibility of each member of the observing group or delegated to one member of the group and the record duplicated or otherwise made available to all the observers for study prior to discussion of the observation.

OBSERVERS SHOULD HAVE AN OPPORTUNITY TO STUDY DATA RECORDED DURING OBSERVATION PRIOR TO DISCUSSION OF THE OBSERVATION. In many instances college class groups return to their classroom immediately following an observation and turn at once to reacting to what they have observed. This would seem to be a doubtful procedure for even an experienced teacher, much more so for a novice. There is little wonder that the discussion which ensues is often lacking in focus or depth of insight. "Aren't the children cute?" "Isn't he a wonderful teacher?" "I certainly would not have known what to do when. . . ." While these comments are honest and sincere reactions, they do little to provide a thorough or straightforward analysis of what has been observed. Even when those guiding the discussion are careful to probe for reasons and basic concepts underlying such reactions, the discussion is often partial and scattered.

Another common procedure of questionable value is that of asking the students to write and hand in a statement of what was observed and their reactions to it. While there may be reasons why a college instructor would wish to receive an evaluative statement in writing, there is little to justify asking each student to copy his record of what took place and hand it in. In such instances the student tends to spend his time in rewriting his notes in more polished form and better handwriting and has little time left to think about what took place. The latter is the important item for the student's growth. "Running notes" and other forms of recording what took place in a period of observation are "service tools" and of value only as they contribute to more accurate evaluation. They have little value in and of themselves.

There is need for each member of the college class to study the data he has recorded if the discussion is to be maximally productive. In most cases this means that evaluation of what has been

observed should not take place until the day following the observation, and that it should preferably take place before the next observation. This makes it possible for each student to study the recorded data carefully and to look again at pertinent materials which may now take on new meaning. Each individual should also note questions which came to mind and for which he could find no answer in the study of the recorded data. These questions might be considered first at the next meeting of the class, to see if other members had located the needed information.

ANALYSIS OF WHAT WAS OBSERVED SHOULD BE BASED ON EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES. When you share your teaching with a group of college students or with an entire class, either your educational principles or those developed by the group may be used as guides in analysis of what has been observed. It should be made clear, however, that it is to be expected that a more negative discussion will result when criteria other than those held by you are used in the critical appraisal. To help students see the meaning of different principles in action, and to temper any tendency to be hypercritical when using their own principles, it is often helpful to evaluate the same experience in terms of the two sets of criteria. In this case some members of the class might evaluate in terms of your educational principles and others might use those developed in their college class. A discussion comparing the resulting analyses of what was observed can be a very rich experience.

YOU SHOULD SHARE IN THE FOLLOW-UP DISCUSSION OF WHAT WAS OBSERVED. While it is not always possible, because of your responsibilities to pupils in your classroom, for you to meet with the college class which observes in your room, it is certainly desirable. Everyone related to the situation should try to make this possible. Your contribution to the observers' understanding of the situation is singular; no one else can make the same contribution. Furthermore, the scope and depth of the information about learners which you share with observers is crucial to what they gain as a result of observation. Without your participation in the group's discussion of their observation, some questions undoubtedly go unanswered and opinions supplant evidence at a time when evidence should be the foundation of discussion.

When you share in the college class discussion of an observation, it is important that you help to create an atmosphere in which there can be direct and straightforward critical analysis of what was observed. If continuity of observation by the group is provided, and they observe and work with you for several days or more, progress is made toward the free exchange of ideas. Continuity contributes to dealing with one of the most difficult problems of group observation, namely, knowing enough about the situation to make an accurate analysis. Misinformation and inadequate information, if not recognized as such, lead to inaccurate judgments which are harmful to the students and possibly to you. Such judgments often lead to misunderstanding and defensive action, especially when those involved are insecure.

You can help to avoid such unhealthy results by being sure that your own reactions are not defensive, by inviting members of the group to observe for more than the scheduled observation when continuity is not provided by the college, by making available pertinent background data about the pupils, the learning situation, your plans and point of view, by meeting with committees from the class or with the class as a whole to answer questions and discuss common concerns.

Another troublesome aspect of discussion following class or group observation relates to developing an atmosphere in which each individual feels free to react as he believes appropriate in terms of the data at hand, has confidence that his reaction will be accepted in the spirit in which it is made, and has respect for the opinions of others. This quality of fundamental integrity in analyzing what is observed is a value to be developed and cherished. It not only is important for the particular work at hand, but it is a characteristic which will affect the students' future work as members of the teaching profession. Both you and the college teacher contribute, either positively or negatively, to the development of this quality.

Positive development suggests that you, as the teacher observed, react honestly and not defensively to suggestions offered. This will mean accepting some suggestions forthwith as proposals you would like to try; inquiring about others to see whether you understand fully; raising questions about still others which will point to additional facts not known or not taken into account by the ob-

servers; and rejecting some on the basis of your educational principles, always in a spirit of respect for differences.

The college teacher can make a similar contribution through his leadership in guiding the evaluative discussion. When you cannot be present at the discussion, he has a particular responsibility to help the students to keep clearly in mind (1) that a proposal may be sound in terms of the *known facts* but might be modified if more were known about the situation, and (2) that there is need to explore whether the difference between what took place and what the class thinks would have been desirable is due to differences in *educational principles.*

14

MAKING CONFERENCES HIGH LEVEL LEARNING EXPERIENCES

THE conference is probably the means most frequently employed in guiding the teacher-to-be. Repeatedly through the preceding chapters the conference has been implied as an integral part of assigning the student teacher, becoming acquainted, planning learning experiences, discussing what is observed, evaluating the guidance of learning, noting growth of the student, and planning next steps.

KINDS OF CONFERENCES AND THEIR PURPOSES

The conference is a means of communication involving two or more persons for the purpose of serious conversation or discussion. It is communication for the purpose of counseling or advising, for pooling the results of each individual's best thinking, for considering together a common interest or concern. In essence, the conference in the professional education of teachers is a teaching-learning situation; it is a meeting of minds with mutual concern for the best interests of children or youth and of the individuals involved in the conference.

The Cooperating Teacher Participates in Various Kinds of Conferences

In your role as a cooperating teacher, the kind of conference in which you will most frequently be involved is the individual conference with your student teacher. Other kinds of conferences which are equally important include: the three-way meeting with your student and his college supervisor; group meetings of student teachers if several are working with you; the individual conference with the college representative; the discussion with your student and a pupil, or parent, or both; seminars or special group meetings with student teachers which parallel their work in student teaching; the conference with a class or smaller group of students observing in your room; and possibly meetings with other cooperating teachers for the informal exchange of ideas or the more systematic study of problems relating to the guidance of student teachers.

You will thus be involved in *individual* and *group* conferences. The former are designed to meet the unique needs of the two individuals involved and are focused so as to give undivided attention to particular purposes and problems which concern those persons in providing high level learning experiences for boys and girls and in improving the teaching competence of the student teacher. Group conferences, too, are designed to deal with matters of common concern and interest to the small or relatively large group of individuals who may be participating. However, as the group becomes larger, the discussion of common problems must of necessity be more generalized. In large group conferences general ideas and several illustrative cases are likely to be discussed and the individual conference member is responsible for making the application to his particular situation. One exception is the group discussion of work observed by a college class, when the conference can be very specific in terms of the situation observed by all of the individuals participating. Both individual and group conferences are designed to stimulate critical thinking about educational problems, to provide for the sharing of ideas, materials, and experiences, and to suggest creative implementation of sound educational principles.

The conferences in which you engage will at times require that you assume the role of *leader* and at others that you be a *cooperative participant.* In the individual conferences with your student teacher, for example, your role will often be that of leadership as the student is helped to see and understand what took place and to plan for the next day. Gradually, as he grows in insight, becomes more skillful in planning, and takes more responsibility, your role in the conference may be that of resource person or cooperative participant. In many such conferences your role will change from time to time within a single conference. Especially will this be true as you and your student teacher move toward a peer relationship, or when the individual conference is with a colleague or the college supervisor. When you work in seminars for students engaged in student teaching, when you are a member of a group conference dealing with the induction and guidance of student teachers, and possibly when you work with a class and their college teacher in studying a classroom situation observed, your role is more likely to be that of a cooperative participant. Both roles are important. You should have a share in all major conferences dealing with the guidance of laboratory experiences.

You will participate or give leadership in conferences which are both *voluntary* and *scheduled.* There will be many casual, unplanned conversations with your student teacher. But there is also need to have regularly scheduled periods for individual conferences, just as there is need for a definite time and place for groups to meet and confer. The non-scheduled conference provides opportunity to deal with emergency items and matters which could not have been anticipated, but which often are situations about which decisions must be made. It also allows for exchange of ideas on matters which can be dealt with more or less quickly through brief comments made while passing in the hall or on the playground, during the lunch hour or during a rest period in the teachers' lounge. It is important, however, that "quickie" conferences of this kind not replace the less hurried exchange of ideas and more thorough study of problems. While such conferences have a place, that place must be clearly identified and its dangers kept in mind. One of these which should not be minimized is the attitude which may result

if conferences are held at times when you and your student should be giving full attention to pupils. To give children written work to do in order to have a conference with your student teacher quite obviously suggests that it is all right to "keep children busy" when the teacher needs to do something else. To assume that pupils do not need your full attention and help when they study builds false concepts. It brings to mind the reaction of one student teacher who said, "I might just as well leave; there is nothing more to see today. The last period is a study period."

The scheduled conference allows for less hurried study of a problem and consideration of those situations which require time and undisturbed discussion. Providing certain times for conferences assures an opportunity to deal adequately with important problems and frees individuals to plan their other activities. Scheduled time is there to use as needed and participants can be expected to be present. It need not be used unless there is a real reason for discussion.

The kinds of conferences in which you participate may be viewed as to basic types which are used to improve teaching. There are conferences which serve *to orient* individuals to each other, to a situation, or to new aspects of work. These conferences provide background information and lay the groundwork. Other conferences are designed primarily *to plan.* When you and your student teacher make block or daily plans, when you help a college class prepare for the observation in which they are to engage, when the members of the seminar for student teachers or cooperating teachers lay out plans for their work together, or when plans are made for next steps in the activities of your student teacher, you are participating in a planning conference.

Another type of conference is the meeting *to evaluate a learning experience.* This third type involves reflection on what is taking place and looking in retrospect on the teaching-learning situation. Many of your individual conferences with your student teacher will be of this nature, as will those in which you work with a college class or small group of individuals following their observation in your class. A fourth kind of conference also relates to evaluation, namely, *to evaluate individual prog-*

ress of student teacher or pupil. As was noted in an earlier chapter, evaluation of the growth of a pupil or your student teacher is a continuous process, one which is an integral part of the day-by-day activities. You and your student teacher note Jim's progress as he participates in the class discussion. You recognize Mr. Yeager's strengths and limitations as you discuss with him what took place during the class period so that plans may be made for the next day. But there are places also for a summarizing and more complete evaluation of progress. These are the conferences with your student teacher which are held from time to time to help him gain a perspective on his own progress and in light of that progress plan future activities. These are also the conferences which you and your student have with parents, as together you look at a pupil's progress and make decisions on ways in which home and school can best contribute to his future growth.

It is necessary to keep in mind that the four categories just named are not mutually exclusive. One or more may be included in a single conference, just as your role may change from leader to participant or the reverse as a conference moves forward. More important, perhaps, is the need to keep clearly in mind the major purposes of the conference.

Conferences in the Education of Teachers Can Serve Varied Purposes

The main objective of most of the conferences in which you will engage in your role as a cooperating teacher is to *provide guidance for the young student in developing and improving his teaching competencies.* Your student teacher not only needs to have the opportunity to see you work with children and youth, but he needs to talk over what he sees you do. In relation to his own work with pupils, he needs to receive help with problems as they arise, and to share his successes and his disappointments with someone who understands and whose judgment he respects. In conferring with you, the student is helped to see why a particular thing didn't work, how it could have been done differently and perhaps with greater success, and to gain renewed confidence and "lift" which are especially needed when he is ex-

ploring in a field in which there is no fixed or exact path. It is through the conference, individual and group, that the student teacher is helped . . .

- To see more clearly the relationships between theory and practice.
- To gain a broad vision of the work of the teacher and the role of the school in the community.
- To grow in self-analysis and self-improvement.
- To develop a professional attitude that is a workable guide to action.
- To formulate a more conscious educational point of view.
- To seek increasingly better solutions to problems by raising questions, discussing ways of working, and outlining ways to test ideas experimentally.

As conferences contribute to the foregoing aspects of student growth, they also serve a second purpose. They *contribute to the student's readiness and competence to participate in conferences as a regular member of a school staff.* Individual conferences with your student teacher, or three-way conferences between the student, the college supervisor, and yourself, have much in common with the kinds of discussions the student will have with his principal or supervisor. Group conferences involving other student teachers will in many ways be similar to the faculty meetings and professional committees in which they will engage as teachers. Through conferences the student can be helped to deepen his insight into group processes, to take part effectively in group discussion, to be objective in the consideration of problems that involve personalities, and to anticipate his role at staff and other conferences in which he will participate in his first year of teaching.

Some conferences will *assist in personal adjustment.* This purpose will be realized primarily through the individual conference. As you and your student teacher work closely as a team, and grow in acquaintance and mutual understanding, the student may turn to you for counsel and advice on problems of a personal nature. These may vary widely in kind and importance —from whether to go to the local church supper, to how to cope with a quick temper, to what to do to "make the family under-

stand that you can't come home every week end." Each problem is important to the student struggling with it; each is important to you as it affects a person in whom you are interested and as it affects that person's work as a student teacher. While you may not in all cases be able to give the kind or amount of help that is needed, by conferring with the student you may find it possible to help him secure the guidance and counsel required.

Then, too, there may be problems of personal adjustment of which the student may not be aware. Personal mannerisms, attitudes toward people, relations with colleagues or pupils, personal values, and personality factors may be matters of personal adjustment which need to be brought to the attention of the student. It is your responsibility to discuss them with your student teacher and to help him receive the needed guidance in dealing with them.

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION IN CONFERENCES

Matters of concern to the participants determine the content of discussion in both individual and group conferences. The purposes of conferences, noted in the previous pages, suggest that any problem that is real to the conferee merits conference time. Since the particular problem or concern is an individual matter, the exact area of discussion cannot be determined in advance. However, experience in working with student teachers helps to identify areas in which problems commonly arise.

Conferences with Your Student Teacher or Student Groups May Focus on a Wide Variety of Topics

The following conference areas are illustrative of those most frequently considered in individual and group conferences with student teachers and groups of students observing in the laboratory situation. While the items are numbered, this in no sense suggests a sequence for discussion. Even the first, dealing with orientation to the laboratory situation, will not be fully carried out before conferring about other areas. As you work with your

student-colleague there will be new areas to be considered, areas which would have had little meaning if included in the initial orientation conferences. Nor will each of the areas named be adequately considered in a single conference. Some may; others will be a part of a number of conferences, while still others will require three, or four, or more complete conference discussions.

1. *Orientation to the laboratory situation*—who we are and what we are like—the pupils, cooperating teacher, administrative personnel, student teacher; what we believe —general educational point of view of the school, of the cooperating teacher; what we are doing—unit and daily plans; how we are organized to work—over-all school organization, room organization.
2. *Knowing and providing for individual children or youth*—studying pupil records, adding to the cumulative record, sharing newly acquired knowledge about pupils, identifying the problems of individuals, relating individual and group needs, providing for individual needs and differences.
3. *Observation of teaching-learning situations*—preparing to be an observer-participant, taking running notes, studying the evidence to see the nature of the learning and to project next steps.
4. *Planning learning experiences*—developing daily plans, selecting and blocking a unit of experience, testing and evaluating a projected plan prior to its use, planning cooperatively with children or youth.
5. *Determining the use of time in the daily program*—projecting the daily schedule, providing for routine within a flexible schedule, pupil participation in schedule planning.
6. *Securing and using instructional materials and equipment* —sources of materials, effective selection and use, handling of audio-visual materials and equipment, use of courses of study, problems of requisitioning materials, pupils' part in selecting and using materials, the place of the textbook, the essentials of a good learning environment.
7. *Problems in guiding learning*—guiding discussion, planning cooperatively with pupils, developing skills, the

place of drill, building attitudes—appreciation, ideals, values, developing problem-solving abilities, guiding study.

8. *Evaluating pupil growth*—the nature and use of pupil records, pupil participation in self-evaluation, tests and their use, other instruments of evaluation, sharing pupil growth with parents, promotion policies.
9. *Relationships with parents*—individual conferences with parents, the work of the P.T.A., keeping parents informed of the work of the school and of their individual children, parents as instructional resources, planning cooperatively with parents.
10. *Evaluating professional growth of the student teacher*—criteria of evaluation, developing power of self-criticism, planning ways of meeting needs, the place of student records.
11. *Matters of personal effectiveness*—physical and mental health, fundamental human relations, personal values, speech.
12. *Working effectively with colleagues and administration*—the teacher's role in the larger school situation, participating effectively in faculty meetings and the work of professional committees, the role of administration and its relation to the teacher, professional ethics, how to profit from supervision.
13. *The teacher as citizen and representative of the school in the community*—professional standards and community standards—the same or different—the teacher's role as a citizen, ways of becoming acquainted with a community—its people, material resources, problems.
14. *Looking to the future—continued professional growth*—problems relating to placement in a teaching position, building a professional library, participating in professional organizations, selecting and reading current literature—magazines and books, attending and participating in professional meetings, providing for further study through travel, course work, school visitation, developing a set of educational principles as guides to action.

Some of the suggested areas of discussion will only be touched upon, others will be developed quite fully. Some will be matters

of individual conference, others will be considered in group conferences, while still others will be dealt with in more general terms in group conferences and the basic concepts specifically applied in the individual conference. Which of these or other areas make up the content of the conferences you have with your student teacher and those in which you participate with other students and colleagues, which will be dealt with comprehensively and which less thoroughly, are matters to be decided in light of the backgrounds of the students involved and their particular needs, interests, and concerns.

Conferences with Other Cooperating Teachers and with College Representatives Should Have Focus

In your capacity as a cooperating teacher you will participate in conferences with other teachers who are also working with student teachers and with staff members of the teacher education institution. The former may include individual or small group conferences with staff members, or they may be seminars, workshops, or professional meetings with a larger group of cooperating teachers. Conferences with representatives of the college will tend to be individual or small group meetings with the college personnel most closely associated with your student teacher and with the laboratory experience aspects of the teacher education program.

Any one of these groups might consider any one of the conference areas indicated in the previous section as being of rather common concern and interest to students. The purpose of the cooperating teachers and college staff groups would be to consider ways of helping students with their problems in these areas: how best to orient the student to the new situation and what to expect by way of understandings and behavior; how to help the student with planning and what previous help and guidance he has had in this area; what is involved in guiding the student so that his observation will be meaningful; how to help him get acquainted with and understand a group of children and what understandings he now has on which further learn-

ing can be built; what experiences he has had with parents and what should he have. These and many others are suggested by the previous list of points for discussion in conferences.

However, there are special problems which the staff working with student teachers will need to consider together. Among these are . . .

1. *Selection of laboratory situations and assignment of student teachers*—the unique contribution of student teaching in the teacher education program, factors in the laboratory situation to be considered—pupils, cooperating teacher, curriculum and educational point of view, the background and special interests and needs of the college student.
2. *Nature of laboratory experiences and the content of student teaching*—determining student readiness for an experience, teaching cooperatively, experiencing the scope of the teacher's work—with pupils in and out of the classroom, with parents, with administration and fellow teachers, in the community—providing for personal and social as well as professional development.
3. *Problems of guiding student teaching experiences*—working and teaching through another person, safeguarding the interests of children or youth, providing for experimentation by the student teacher, relating pupil interests and the interests and needs of the student teacher, helping the student relate theory and practice, understanding college students, respecting and working in terms of differences in educational point of view.
4. *Using the conference effectively in guiding the student teacher*—providing time for conferences, making conferences high quality learning experiences, essentials of a good conference, the student's role in the conference.
5. *Evaluating the student teacher's growth*—forms and criteria of evaluation, the cooperating teacher's role and that of the college supervisor in evaluation, keeping cumulative records of the student teacher's progress, the nature of constructive criticism, letters of recommendation.
6. *Working effectively with representatives of the college*—sharing student progress with the college supervisor, securing information and data desired from the college, relating the cooperating teacher's role and that of the college repre-

sentative supervising the student, planning the three-way conference of the student, college supervisor, and cooperating teacher, keeping informed of college policy and practices, acquainting the college with the laboratory situation.

7. *Closing the gap between pre- and inservice education*—the cooperating teacher's role in placement of the student and follow-up in the field situation, preparing the student for the first teaching position, continuing relations with the student, identifying needed changes in the program of teacher education.
8. *Continuous growth of the cooperating teacher as a supervisor of student teachers*—evaluating the supervisory program, working to bring about any needed changes, participating in professional conferences dealing with student teaching and other aspects of teacher education, reading pertinent current materials in the field of teacher education.

Conferences dealing with problems in these related areas, like those held with student teachers, will vary in content and development according to the needs and interests of the particular staff members participating.

ESSENTIALS OF THE EFFECTIVE CONFERENCE

Productive individual and group conferences do not just happen. Conferring, like teaching itself, can be a perfunctory, question-and-answer, clock-watching episode. Or it can be stimulating—a pooling of ideas on matters of common concern. The difference results from the degree to which basic principles of education and discussion are provided for in the conference. Primarily a form of teaching and learning through discussion, the conference is guided by the same principles governing any high quality teaching-learning experience. This section considers the meaning of basic educational principles when specifically applied to conferences.

Good Human Relations Must Be Maintained

To be effective, the conference depends upon the willingness and ability of two or more people to try to understand each other

and to be sensitive to the well-being of those sharing in the discussion. If there are to be good human relationships, each person in the situation must make an effort to understand the other persons involved. There is also need to believe that problems can be solved through cooperative efforts in which each person contributes his best thinking, and that the quality of contribution is not necessarily related to status factors. Each contribution is tested for its worth in coping with the particular concern, regardless of the authority of the person offering it. Understanding of individuals and an objective approach to problems contribute to mutual respect and wholesome personal and professional relationships. Such relationships are characterized by "we" rather than by "I" and "you," by willingness to look at different points of view, by encouraging individuals to experiment with and test ideas, by trying to see proposals through the eyes of the other person, by taking time to understand the reasoning behind the suggestion made or action taken.

Qualities of mutual concern and the meeting of minds in an atmosphere of rapport and personal integrity are important in any teaching-learning situation. Their lack, however, stands out more sharply in the individual or small group conference in which the reactions of each person are evident. Only when good human relationships prevail is there the security and unity of purpose necessary for students and staff members to work effectively toward raising and solving problems of genuine concern.

The Purpose for Conferring Should Be Clearly Identified

In the conference, as in any other teaching-learning situation, the individual's purpose conditions the meaning that the situation has for him and the elements to which he attends and from which he learns. In the conference more than in other forms of teaching and learning, however, this important essential of learning seems to be neglected. Accordingly, individuals often attend without knowing the purpose of the meeting. When this is true, there is no opportunity to prepare in advance and the more vocal members of the group may have undue advantage

in the discussion. When insufficient attention is given to clarifying the purpose of the conference and making sure that this purpose is known and accepted by the members as they begin their work, time is lost, discussion tends to be scattered and lacking in focus, and misconceptions often result. Time given to making sure that you and your student teacher and other conferees have agreed upon the reason for the conference and what you hope to accomplish through it, is time well spent.

One role of leadership in the conference is to help individuals to look critically at identified purposes, to select those of genuine concern, and to become sensitive to new and changing needs. Participants in a group situation may contribute to sound identification of purposes by raising questions, helping to clarify the statement of goals, and pointing up the interrelations among individual purposes.

Number, Frequency, and Length of Conferences Will Vary to Meet Individual Needs and Purposes

When conferences are based on the needs and interests of the participants, they cannot be fixed as to number, frequency, or length. The principle of individual differences applies here as in other teaching-learning experiences. However, as suggested in an earlier section, to advocate a flexible program of conferences does not negate the desirability of regularly scheduled conference time with individuals or with groups. Opportunities for "on the spot" conferring should be provided in addition to regularly scheduled conferences. The "open door" to discuss emergency matters and concerns with which the individual is unable to cope and which therefore interfere with normal activities is an important policy in working with student teachers. Setting aside specific times for conferences when all participants are available decreases the chances that some individuals who do not sense their need to confer will be overlooked, and that in the press of other obligations a conference program will be neglected.

A successful conference cannot be rushed. Time scheduled for

the conference should be long enough so that time pressure is not felt. Time is needed for reflection, for the various participants to exchange ideas, for consideration of the reasons back of proposals made and testing their worth, for reaching a point of agreement on action to be taken. It is equally important that a conference not be unduly prolonged. When the items on the agenda have been brought to a natural and normal close, to spend more time is wasteful and often undermines positive feelings and attitudes developed early in the conference. Participants should have a share in determining the length of any conference, and when the end of the regularly scheduled period approaches, time should be taken to test with the participants whether it is advisable to continue for a longer period or to arrange another meeting. It is as important to close at the right time as it is to begin on time.

The place of the conference may vary according to circumstances. As was suggested, it should in general be a place free from many interruptions, and one in which there is easy access to the materials needed. This probably means that most student–cooperating teacher conferences will be held in or near the classroom. At times, however, the informality of a social situation—over a cup of coffee in the cafeteria, in the cooperating teacher's apartment—may contribute to the particular purposes of the conference.

The individual and group conference with student teachers, the three-way conference of student teacher, cooperating teacher, and college supervisor, or the conference of cooperating teacher and college representative, may be requested by any one of the participants. It is important that the student feel responsible for asking for a conference when there are problems on which he wishes help or when there are situations which he recognizes require discussion. Knowing when to request a conference is a significant learning for the teacher-to-be and can contribute to his effective use of the conference with his principal or supervisor when he becomes a full-fledged member of the teaching profession. A conference should be scheduled by mutual agreement, with the individual requesting it assuming responsibility for indicating the purpose of the conference and for taking leadership in opening the problem for discussion.

Careful Preparation Should Be Made for Scheduled Conferences

Planning in advance for conferences has the same values as planning prior to guiding other forms of teaching-learning situations. Projecting the nature and content of the conference increases the possibility that the content will be balanced, materials will be on hand, special competencies of student and staff members will be used to advantage, and discussion will be meaningful and orderly.

The same essential factors need to be considered in planning for a conference as are kept in mind in planning any other experience. First is the task of thinking through clearly and specifically what is to be achieved by the conference—what problems need to be discussed, what questions need to be raised, what goals should be achieved. With the purpose of the conference clearly in mind, thought can be given to projecting the steps that might be taken to solve the problem or achieve the goal of the conference. For your student teacher, or some other participant, this may include: (1) identifying the sub-problems or questions the student wishes to raise; (2) noting the observations and insights which the student recognizes as bearing on each of the questions and which he feels he should share in the conference discussion; and (3) securing and organizing pertinent materials needed in dealing with the subject to be discussed.

You, or another leader of a conference, in planning would also (1) identify the sub-problems or questions relating to the problem to be considered—both those about which you anticipate the student will be concerned, and those which you hold to be essential elements of the area of discussion; and (2) prepare for the conference materials which will be needed in making it a success. The former is determined by the goals to be reached and the latter both by the goals and by the content and nature of the experiences projected for the conference. Planning the sequence of experiences which you anticipate will be included in the conference may require study of the individual cumulative record of the student, especially background data, teaching goals, running notes of work observed, or previous conference notes. This not only is important in providing for the individual participant, but also helps to assure

continuity and the following up of problems touched upon or left over from previous conferences.

This type of planning helps all participants to enter into the conference with clear-cut goals, with ideas and suggestions for dealing with the subject to be considered, and with needed materials at hand. It provides the necessary background and preparation for cooperative planning when you and your student teacher, or some other group, come together in the conference. The following conference plans were made by a cooperating teacher and his student teacher in anticipation of several conferences with parents for the purpose of sharing with them their children's progress and needs.

The Cooperating Teacher's Plan [1] (for conference with student teacher—November 15)	Comments on the Plan
Purpose: To develop mutual understanding and over-all guides for parent conferences re pupil progress	This is the purpose the cooperating teacher set up for the conference with Jane, the student teacher.
Projected Discussion:	
1. Start with questions Jane may have: a. Is there any school policy re such conferences? b. What do parents expect from such conferences? c. How do you decide what to share with parents? d. How long should they be? e. ?	Based on educational principles, the cooperating teacher plans to begin the conference discussion with questions the student raises. He projects possible questions the student might raise, but keeps the plan open-ended in order to deal with whatever the student brings as questions about planning for conferences with parents.
2. Points to be emphasized (leading from Jane's questions): a. What can be achieved through the conference 1) Help parent understand child's strengths and weaknesses.	Here the cooperating teacher is thinking through the key points to be considered in planning a conference with parents. Just as in planning for work with pupils a teacher needs to consider in advance what learnings ought to be

[1] The cooperating teacher's plan as reported here has been put in more complete form so that the reader might easily follow it. In the actual plan, the cooperating teacher used single words and phrases at many points.

2) Set up home-school plan of action.
3) Increase our understanding of the home situation.

achieved, so in planning for the conference with the student teacher, the cooperating teacher considers what the student teacher may learn through the experience.

b. Planning for the parent conference
1) Study pupil's records to note progress.
2) Study records of previous conferences with his parents.
3) Determine points of emphasis to be made in the conference (known points of concern to parents, areas of special progress, areas of difficulty).
4) For each item in (3) include proposals for action by home and school.
5) Outline conference procedure—especially how to open the conference.

Five points (2a-e) are included in the cooperating teacher's plans as those ideas he would like to develop with Jane.

c. The child's role—how provide a positive learning experience
1) Child's part in preparing conference material.
2) When he should be present at the conference.

d. Guiding the conference
1) Anticipating parent reactions.
2) Kinds of questions parents ask.
3) Over-all guides for a good conference.

e. Follow-up of the conference
1) Record of the conference.
2) When to provide a written summary for parents.

Even though the cooperating teacher has in mind five points to be emphasized, he recognizes that in terms of Jane's readiness it may be better to help her see the need for attention to some of these points (perhaps c, d, and e) through planning for a specific conference. This is a decision he will make during the conference with Jane.

The Cooperating Teacher's Plan	Comments on the Plan
Next steps 1. Decide on child for whom early parent conference would be helpful—Marvin or Sandra. 2. Jane and I prepare independent outlines of plans for conference with parent. 3. Set date for exchanging plans and date for sharing reactions to them (November 27?). 4. Each of us might include with our conference plan the guides we had in mind in preparing the plan.	As an important part of this cooperating teacher's plan, attention is given to steps that appear to be desirable following this conference with Jane. These ought to be kept tentative so that both the teacher and the student are free to plan in terms of what seems best as they near the end of their conference. However, the cooperating teacher is prepared to guide this discussion because he has thought through some possible next steps.

Jane shared this advanced planning for parent conferences with her cooperating teacher.

The Student Teacher's Plan (for conference with cooperating teacher—November 15)	Comments on the Plan
Purpose: To find out how to report a child's progress to his parents in a conference	Note that the student teacher states the purpose of the conference differently from the cooperating teacher. The student wants to find out "how to" report a child's progress to his parents in conference. At this point in her professional experience, Jane is looking for specific answers rather than general guides.
Things I Want to Find Out 1. What is the school policy regarding parent conferences? a. Are they scheduled at certain times in the year? b. Are they held during the school day or after school? c. Is such a conference ever held in the child's home? 2. How do you decide what to tell parents about their child's progress?	The student has listed six questions on which she wants help. According to the cooperating teacher's plan, the conference discussion will begin with one or more of these questions. Because the cooperating teacher has planned to use Jane's questions as a basis for developing general guides for planning parent confer-

a. Should you select the things they are most interested in?
b. Should you talk about the child's limitations?

3. How do you tell parents negative things about their child?
   a. How honest and direct should you be?
   b. Should you mention positive things first?
4. What kinds of questions do parents ask?
5. How do you bring the conference to a close?
6. Does the conference take the place of a written statement about the child's progress?

ences, the discussion will go beyond these specific questions to consideration of some basic generalizations which may apply to all conferences in which children's progress is being reported to parents.

The minutes spent in thoughtful preparation for a conference is time as wisely spent as that given to planning for teaching a class. It is difficult to understand why students and teachers who would never think of guiding children or youth without careful planning in advance are so ready to enter upon a conference situation without similar preparation. Both are teaching-learning situations; both require careful thought in advance of the actual experience itself; equal values are derived from planning in both instances. Perhaps lack of careful planning accounts for many conferences that result in little help and satisfaction for students—a feeling that little was accomplished, that they can do little about the general comments made, that they talked all around the problem rather than coming to grips with it. When discussion is thus scattered, it is also likely to be lacking in objectivity and in a scholarly approach to the study of a problem. Planning a conference means coordinating materials, time, energy, and skill into a specific achievement.

Records of Suggestions and Agreements Contribute to Continuity in Conferences

The pre-conference plan, like the unit and daily teaching plan, provides a basis for a record of the conference if changes and

additions are noted during or at the close of the meeting. As significant points are made during the discussion and as agreements are reached, these may be noted by the student on his plan for the conference and by you on the plan which you are using to guide the discussion. The same may be done by the various individuals working in a group conference. Other modifications in your plan, points not dealt with, for example, can be noted after the conference is over. It is easy to make such notations if a blank column or wide margin is left on the original plan. In fact, such a column might be headed "Guides and Responsibilities." For the preconference plan of the cooperating teacher given in the immediately preceding pages, the record might be as follows:

Cooperating Teacher's Plan	Record of the Conference (Guides and Responsibilities)
. . . . .	
2. Points to be emphasized	
a. What can be achieved through the conference:	
1) Help parent understand child's strengths and weaknesses.	
2) Set up home-school plan of action.	Discussed values in setting up goals together.
3) Increase our understanding of the home situation.	Additional item: (4) Help parents understand what the school is trying to do.
b. Planning for the conference:	
1) Study pupil's records to note progress.	Jane's second question was, "What do you discuss in a parent conference of this kind?"
2) Study records of previous conferences with his parents.	
3) Determine points of emphasis to be made in the conference—	Importance of parent's concern—similar to the role of learner's purpose when working with children, Jane thought.
Known points of concern to parents	
Areas of special progress	
Areas of difficulty	Guides for selecting items of discussion, other than parent's concerns, to be developed through
4) For each item in (3) include proposals for ac-	

tion by home and school. 5) Outline conference procedure—especially how to open conference.	study of Marvin's record. Jane needs concrete material for her thinking. *Pick up points 4 and 5 in next conference.*
. . . . .	
3. Next steps	
a. Decide on child for whom early parent conference would be helpful—Marvin or Sandra.	Both Jane and I will study Marvin's record, including notes on a previous conference with parent, and each prepare a plan for conference with Mrs. Dolan.
b. Jane and I to prepare independent rough outlines of plans for conference with parent.	
c. Set date for exchange of plans and date for sharing reactions to them (November 27?).	Exchange plans on November 26 Conference on plans November 29
d. Each of us might include with our conference plan the guides he had in mind in preparing the plan. (*This item not mentioned in conference.*)	Jane concerned about her questions 3 and 4—To discuss in relation to: Plans for conference with Marvin's mother Bring to conference tape recording of another parent conference

While each conference has its major points of emphasis, usually there is continuity from one conference to another, because problems of teaching relate intimately to one another. Discussion of one problem should draw upon generalizations and principles pointed out and identified by the student in previous conferences. If educational principles and other generalizations are to be used in dealing with new situations, provision must be made for continuity from one conference to those that follow. Conference records serve as a concrete reference in providing the needed continuity.

Records can serve as a reminder of steps taken and of plans for next steps, and can thus help provide continuity which builds upon previous experience and upon agreements made. This is particularly needed in those stages of your work with your student teacher when your conferences are less frequent. The record is a

helpful reminder when a time lapse causes uncertainty about just what took place at the last conference. The same need is evident in group conferences of cooperating teachers or in student seminars in which you may participate. These meetings may be scheduled a week or more apart.

Conference records can serve in still other ways. A series of such records provides anecdotal material useful to you and to the student teacher in appraising his growth. His conference plans show developing insights, while notations made about the conference can indicate attitudes expressed, beliefs held, and ways of reacting in dealing with problems. These records also contribute to the accumulation of evidence on the kinds of situations which confront students in professional laboratory situations and on suggestions or activities helpful in meeting such situations effectively. If accurate records of this kind are kept and analyzed to study the needs of students and ways of meeting them, a real contribution to the guidance of future teachers can be made. This contribution would be useful to cooperating teachers in their study of problems of inducting and guiding students in student teaching and other laboratory experiences. It would also have implications for the college faculty in studying the college program for adequacy and for balance, sequence, and continuity of experience.

Discussion Should Be Democratic in Point of View and Implement Principles of Effective Group Thinking

Providing for individual differences, recognizing the significance of the student's purpose, providing for active involvement of each participant—these and other fundamental principles of teaching apply to the conference. They are essential elements of the kind of effective group and individual thinking which is so large a part of the conference and often a large part of other forms of teaching. Since these principles have been considered in relation to other aspects of your work with student teachers, the present discussion is focused on factors in effective group thinking suggested by basic educational principles.

IN A DEMOCRATIC CONFERENCE SITUATION THERE IS SHARED RESPONSIBILITY. A conference is viewed by some individuals as a situation in which one person takes the lead in thinking while the other individual or individuals follow the ideas and suggestions made. Some people assume that during a conference one person will do most of the talking while the others involved will listen. A democratic conference situation demands more than a physical meeting of individuals; it requires a meeting of minds and a sharing of thinking about mutual concerns. Individuals who intellectually accept the belief that the conference should be democratic in point of view and cooperatively developed, often deny that belief in their behavior. True, it is often easier and seemingly quicker to dictate, to tell the student what to do, than to start where he is and work out plans together, but known facts about the nature of the learning process point to the limitations of such a conference procedure. It is important that each conferee think through the situation at hand if the desired learning is to be assured, if responsibility is to be genuinely shared, and if action taken is to build understanding which can and will be appropriately used in subsequent situations.

EFFECTIVE PROBLEM SOLVING REQUIRES INDEPENDENT THINKING FOCUSED ON COMMON CONCERNS. The conference, as a form of effective group thinking, should be so guided that each member will think for himself. Each participant has a responsibility for contributing to the solution of the problem under discussion—for "thinking out loud" during the meeting. Only as each individual thinks for himself can there be an assured meeting of minds in dealing with the situation under discussion. Since the individual learns in relation to his involvement and in terms of that to which he attends, it is necessary that he participate in the problem solving process if he is to grow in ability to deal with problems which he will meet later as a teacher. If his conference participation is largely that of accepting what the leader or dominant individuals propose, his basic learning may be that of becoming a follower and of finding ways of indicating acceptance. He may learn little about the significance of the area of discussion and have little or no understanding of what is actually involved in dealing with the

problem or the proposals made. For such an individual, the conference has little or no real value. It is important that each individual participating in the conference be encouraged to ask pertinent questions, to raise issues, to organize his ideas in relation to the purpose at hand and to present differing proposals, to ask for evidence supporting a position taken. This suggests that when you are in a leadership role, either with your student teacher or with a group of students, your guidance of the conference should have the following characteristics . . .

- Recognize and show acquaintance with major points of view bearing on a problem or situation.
- Show knowledge of and recognize the potentialities of the conferees.
- Secure each participant's contribution opportunely—encourage the less vocal, invite a contribution when you know that the background and experience of an individual provide essential ideas or illustrations.
- Utilize suggestions offered in a way to focus them on the point under discussion; judge the value of contributions to the solution of the problem.
- Keep the discussion moving forward—identify rambling, sidetracks, or unnecessary details, help in recognizing more fruitful lines of endeavor, make a personal contribution when needed and the conferees are ready for it, recognize saturation points and appropriate times for summation or generalization.

THERE IS NEED TO DEVELOP THE ABILITY TO INCLUDE THINKING ABOUT WHAT IS BEING SAID AS A PART OF LISTENING. Listening and hearing are not synonymous, although listening includes hearing. To do independent thinking in cooperation with one or more other individuals requires more than thinking about an issue. The conference member who concentrates on his own thoughts about a situation cannot be an effective participant. He does not hear what others say and accordingly cannot relate his thinking to that of others and to the discussion. Furthermore, it is not enough that he hear what is being said. For effective group discussion and a meeting of minds there is need to relate hearing with understanding and thinking about what is being said—to engage in discrimi-

native listening. The essentials of discrimination in listening are analysis, judgment, and constant evaluation of both content and performance. If students are to make the most of conference situations, it is important that they give attention to their listening habits. You can be of help to them in building habits of discriminative listening by . . .

- Providing for conscious and clear-cut identification of purposes (the individual's readiness for listening and what he listens to are directly related to his purposes).
- Differentiating between opinions and facts—testing and analyzing evidence.
- Identifying oversimplifications and overgeneralizations—labeling statements as such when used.
- Interpreting what is said in terms of the preferences and point of view of the individual making the contribution—calling attention to the individual's point of reference.
- Seeking to find where differences lie in point of view and using them to broaden and sharpen thinking—rather than becoming defensive and overprotective of a position held.
- Analyzing types of emotional appeals and the emotional overtones which accompany the listening—innuendoes, "either-or" thinking, clichés, snap judgments, false erudition, unsubstantiated generalities, half-truths.

RELATE GENERAL ISSUES AND ABSTRACT IDEAS TO CONCRETE CASES AND SITUATIONS. Oral persuasion and unwarranted emotional appeals often result from the misuse of language. Even when misuse is not intended, the process of communicating ideas from one person to another is very complex. Yet, the conference rests upon successful and accurate conveying of ideas among individuals. The importance of the spoken word and the tonal qualities and bodily expression surrounding words is indicated in the following analysis:

> . . . the word is used in a number of contextual relations. The word is in a verbal context—surrounded by other words. The word is in a physical context, which consists of surroundings of the speaker and hearer at the time the word is used. The word is in a psychological context, which consists of the backgrounds of experience from which the meaning attached to the word emerges. The word is in an emo-

> tional context, which arouses strong or weak feelings, constructive or negative attitudes, heat as well as light. . . . Every word has multiple meanings. It can be used referentially or metaphorically. It can be used constructively for accurate communication or it can be negatively misused.[2]

The wise use of verbalization in conference situations, then, is an imperative if the important role of the conference in teacher education is to be realized. One of the significant safeguards for sound and meaningful verbalization is the use of concrete, vivid, and objective experiences. Ideas are fully communicated only as conferees "recall comparable experiences, attach similar meanings to the verbal symbols used, and gauge the implied meanings to the purposes for which the words are being utilized."[3] In working with your student teacher and with other students, more exact meanings, more accurate insights, and desired concepts and attitudes will be realized as you . . .

- Base discussion on experiences which you and the student(s) have had together.
- Clarify general ideas and issues through the use of concrete illustrations and experiences.
- Encourage supporting a verbalization with an illustration or application—a "for instance."

GENERALIZATIONS AND UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES SHOULD EMERGE FROM CONSIDERATION OF SPECIFIC DATA. Many of the conferences which you will have will relate to specific teaching-learning situations in which you and your student teacher have been engaged. The data—facts and events—will refer to a specific pupil group, a particular area of content or an exact situation involving definite elements and environmental factors. It is not enough that your student understand what needs to be done in the situation and how to deal with the immediate problem. He should also learn from this experience how to meet similar situations and problems as they arise in his further work with you and in his activities as a regular member of the teaching profession.

Part of the challenge and excitement of teaching is adjusting

[2] Burr, J. B., Harding, L. W., and Jacobs, L. B., *Student Teaching in the Elementary School,* p. 376. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Copyright, 1950.

[3] *Ibid.,* p. 377.

and modifying ways of guiding learning experiences to meet the particular set of factors in each situation. To be able to make these needed adjustments and to deal effectively with each pupil group requires that teachers have a set of basic generalizations or principles which will serve as guides in meeting new and different situations. As noted at various points in this volume, basic educational principles are the constants with which the teacher works with each group of pupils and in all areas of experience. They change only as societal values change and new evidence is discovered regarding the learning process.

Perhaps the greatest single contribution which you can make to your student teacher is to help him grow in clarifying the educational concepts and principles in which he believes and in learning to use them appropriately and effectively in dealing with a variety of teaching-learning situations and problems. You will contribute to this type of growth through conferences in which you . . .

- Encourage consideration of the *why* underlying proposals for action.
- Identify the basic concepts or principles governing any action suggestions which you make.
- Analyze and evaluate teaching-learning situations observed in terms of their implementation of stated educational principles.
- Consider and discuss what a given principle would mean if applied in a situation somewhat different from that in which the student teacher is working (or the college class has observed).

DISCUSSION SHOULD BE OBJECTIVE AND PROFESSIONAL. Frequently in conferences it is necessary to deal with situations and problems that relate to personalities. Most often these problems concern an individual pupil or group of learners. Sometimes evidence relating to parents or other teachers or data regarding the administration need to be considered in coping with a problem. All teaching-learning situations involve individuals, and personality factors and differences in educational point of view cannot be ignored. The individual is central in the teaching-learning situation, and it is important that consideration of his role and action be considered objectively and sympathetically in the conference.

If this is to be done, several qualities must characterize confer-

ences with student teachers or other groups of college students who have been observing teachers and pupils at work. First, all pertinent evidence must be presented as it relates to the factors involved in the problem. Rather than focusing on the individual personality, emphasis is on the action of the person as it relates to a particular aspect of the situation under discussion. For example, in presenting evidence relating to home influence on the child's care of property, attention is called to leaving of wraps and other articles of clothing at random in the home rather than to "Jim's mother is quite willing to have the maid pick up after him." Or, in discussing a problem created when you and a colleague hold different standards for pupils, the evidence presented should show specific differences in expectations and requirements rather than the generalized statement, "Miss Potter expects the pupils to do as well as her high school seniors; she doesn't recognize that they are just freshmen."

Closely related, and almost a part of the foregoing, is a second quality which should characterize discussion in a conference. Personal interpretations or judgments regarding causation, conditioning factors, or motivation must be clearly labeled as opinions or judgments. It is never professional to overgeneralize on known conditions without clearly indicating that the comment is a hunch or a possibility not based on fact. Such statements are useful only as tentative hypotheses to be investigated and tested in light of evidence to be gathered in dealing further with the problem.

Third, where causes or conditioning factors are known, they should be made clear. For example, the difference in your way of working in a particular situation and that proposed to your student teacher in his college classes may rest upon a fundamental difference in educational point of view. When the reasons underlying differences are known, it is important that they be discussed. This helps the student to see what lies back of differences and develops an attitude of trying to see a situation from the other person's standpoint rather than making a judgment regarding the other person. Each person is the individual that he is and each behaves in his particular way as a result of his experiences. Understanding of this important fact helps the student to be more sympathetic toward those with whom he differs, to seek causes before making judgments about his fellows. Of course, it must be kept

in mind that the identification of causal factors is not a simple thing to do. All causation is multiple and all human personalities are complex.

A fourth characteristic of the conference discussion relates to the use of confidential data. Such information should be used clinically as the physician would use it. Only the facts which bear on the problem are reported; they are considered frankly and forthrightly; they are not carried beyond the confines of the group authorized to consider the particular problem.

Through individual and group conferences you can help your student teacher and other prospective teachers be objective in looking at a problem and trustworthy in dealing with personal data and confidential information as you demonstrate by your own action and guide his thinking and behavior toward . . .

- Presenting and discussing frankly and objectively all data bearing on a situation or problem.
- Relating evidence directly to the aspect of the situation on which it bears.
- Focusing on evidence in terms of action-behavior rather than on personalities.
- Reacting to evidence in terms of basic principles and accepted guides to action; basing decisions on principle.
- Labeling personal interpretations as opinion or judgment.
- Respecting the confidential nature of data.
- Seeking to understand the viewpoint and perception of the individuals involved.

THE DISCUSSION SHOULD LEAD TO PROPOSALS FOR ACTION. Proposals for action may well begin a conference as the participants identify and clarify the area of discussion and plans are made for working on the problem. There is also need for proposals for action as the conference progresses and steps are taken toward dealing with the problems raised. As you and your student teacher evaluate your teaching and make plans, it is important that provision be made for definite action and that each person leave the conference with intent to act. What is to be done about the matters discussed should be clear. What you and the student teacher both are to do should be mutually understood. The

conference should lead to proposals for action that cause each of you to leave the conference with the feeling, "Something can be done and I have some ideas about how to do it." For both of you this may mean ways of working with pupils and colleagues. For you it may have the added meaning of how to help your student teacher.

Frank and free discussion focused on problems of real concern makes this possible. Neither you nor the student should leave the conference without having been explicit about things that either feels he cannot carry out. Only as such feelings are known can adjustments be made and unnecessary difficulties avoided. Likewise, one should not leave the conference without securing the help he sought. If the needed help has not been received, agreements cannot be carried out effectively and teaching improved. There is need to stay with a problem until there is common understanding of what is to be done by each person before the next conference.

EVALUATION OF THE CONFERENCE

The real proof of the success and value of any conference is the change in action and behavior of the conferees. Has the conference, or conferences, deepened the student's insight into teaching? How has his teaching changed? In what ways is he growing? Answers to these questions provide the real test of the effectiveness of the conference as a teaching-learning situation.

One of the satisfactions in working as a cooperating teacher is the opportunity afforded to see the learning which results from conferring with your student teacher. There is rather immediate and direct opportunity for the student to apply what he has learned and to show change in behavior. The teacher of a college class, by contrast, sometimes has to wait for a period of time to know whether what the student seemingly has learned verbally will be used by him in meeting situations. The same is true of some aspects of learning by children and youth.

Despite the more direct relationship between what is learned and its use in various situations which student teaching and other laboratory experiences afford, it is often helpful to use other

means to evaluate the work done in conferences. You may find it helpful at times to reflect on a conference just completed, or to review critically your plan for a conference. How adequately does your plan provide for the essentials of an effective conference outlined in the preceding section of this chapter? How adequately did the conference provide for these essentials as it was carried out with the student or students? This is one way to evaluate the guidance you are providing through conferences.

Another helpful type of evaluation is based on the conference as a teaching-learning situation. As noted earlier, the same basic educational principles that govern your work with children or youth are the guides which give direction to your efforts in the teaching-learning situation of the conference. How effectively did the conference relate to the student teacher's concerns and purposes? Were his special interests, abilities, and needs taken into account? Did he share in planning the conference? How actively was he involved in the work of the conference? These and other questions derived from basic principles serve as another set of criteria in reflecting on what took place in the conference and in planning for other conferences.

The conference plan and record given on page 412, for example, show the cooperating teacher's recognition of Jane's (the student teacher) concerns and the adjustment of the discussion to those concerns. This recognition is evident in beginning with the student's questions and in noting, in the conference record, plans for providing for other concerns not dealt with in the discussion. It was because the cooperating teacher recognized Jane's stage of development and her particular needs that she decided to suggest a study of pupil records as a basis for planning the parent conference. Later in their work together the cooperating teacher would very likely help Jane develop basic guidelines for parent conferences. At this point in student teaching, Jane was not ready to deal with abstract concepts.

Take another illustration. A group of cooperating teachers were studying ways of improving their conferences with student teachers. They decided to take recordings of some conferences and analyze them on the basis of principles, to see how they might have been improved. Mr. Wright, a sixth grade cooperat-

ing teacher, brought the record of one of his conferences. An excerpt from the record follows:

C.T. Could you have introduced the lesson differently from the way you did?

S.T. I guess so. But I wanted to connect it with their homework of the night before.

C.T. Would it have been a good idea to ask them some common everyday questions—why you feel cold in a wet bathing suit, why we spread clothes on the line to dry . . . .

S.T. What would I have done about the homework?

C.T. Couldn't you have told by the children's answers to these questions what they did about their homework?

S.T. You mean I could tell without asking questions about their homework?

C.T. You could tell whether they had been stimulated to do their homework by asking questions about the bathing suit and the damp clothes.

S.T. I will make a note of that.

C.T. Another thing we might do is try some experiments, for instance the olive oil experiment. Another thing that I sometimes do is to put my hand in water, or another thing is to use mercury and let them see the little drops around it.

. . . . . .

The group analyzed this record and proposed that the conference might have been more productive if focused quite differently.

C.T. Are there any questions that you want to raise before we think about our plans for tomorrow?

S.T. Yes. I'm worried about Harry's question. In the notes I see that I didn't get back to it as I said I would. Should I have gone on to electricity when he asked the question about lightning? I guess the thing that really bothers me is to know what to do about questions the children raise which are related to the area of study but are not right on the immediate point. We were talking about clouds.

C.T. The question is often a puzzling one for any teacher. Do you think of any criteria that we have set up thus far that would help us to arrive at an answer—we certainly have to decide whether we should come back to it tomorrow if Harry doesn't raise it, and if he does, we are face to face with having to make a decision.

S.T. The one that comes to mind is deciding whether it is a genuine concern or a passing curiosity—and that makes me think of another—whether it is Harry's interest or that of other children.

C.T. Let me add two others—(1) whether it deals with something that is appropriate to the maturity level of the children—can they be helped to understand it and (2) does it relate to something important in the lives of the children. The first one applies more specifically to how extensive the treatment would be rather than whether we would deal with it at all.

S.T. In a sense, I suppose that is true of each of the four. Certainly it isn't right to ignore any honest question. But just how do you deal with it—give just enough to satisfy, defer it for later study as I did (but not forget it!), suggest that the individual child work on it?

C.T. I think you are right. Let's test Harry's question against the four guides we have named. What about your first one—genuine concern or fleeting curiosity?

S.T. I really don't know what he wanted to know about it. He just said, "What makes the lightning?"

C.T. What do children wonder about lightning? What are the superstitions and conceptions of our youngsters now?

. . . . . .

You may wish, from time to time, to make analyses of your conferences. Such study is helpful both in evaluating and in improving the effectiveness of your conferences with your student teacher and with other groups of prospective teachers. As you come to know your student teacher, he will doubtless be willing to have you make a tape recording of some of your conferences together. He may be interested in studying the record with you in an effort to see more clearly his strengths and limitations in conference participation. Study of individual and group conferences should help students to see how teachers attack and work on their problems, how ideas are shared and lead to new ideas that are better than those originally held by any one member of the group, and how professional growth results from cooperative study and stimulation. Growth in power to confer is an important competence for your student both as a student and as he moves from the role of student teacher to that of teacher and member of the teaching profession.

15

EVALUATING YOUR STUDENT TEACHER'S PROGRESS

As a teacher you are constantly subjected to the evaluative reactions of many people—children and youth, fellow teachers, administrative and supervisory personnel, parents, and the general public as a part of its interest in education and the work of the school. The same will be true of the student teacher when he becomes a teacher in professional service. How will individuals and groups react to him and to his work? This is a question of very real concern to your student teacher and to you.

The entire program of teacher education is designed to help the teacher-to-be to grow in the understandings, attitudes, and skills basic to the work of the citizen-teacher in today's society. While courses and other parts of the college program contribute to building needed competencies, including the ability and desire to continue growing, student teaching provides a unique situation in which to evaluate progress which the student is making toward the desired goals. It provides a major test of total competence at the operational level. This special opportunity afforded by the student teaching experience is one in which the student teacher has a genuine and deep interest. It is

an opportunity in which he looks to you for guidance in helping him to sense the progress he is making, to identify problems and difficulties, and to plan ways of improving his behavior in the interest of better educational experiences for children and youth.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION

The basic principles which underlie and give direction to the evaluation process are the same whether evaluation relates to the youngest learner, to the high school youth, or to the college student engaged in student teaching. These principles have been outlined in Chapter 11. They are stated here so that reference may easily be made to them as attention is given in this chapter to what they mean for evaluating the growth of student teachers.

- The fundamental purpose of evaluation is to promote growth.
- Evaluation involves appraisal of agreed upon values and goals.
- Evaluation is an integral and important part of the learning process and should be continuous.
- Evaluation should be based on both quantitative and qualitative evidence and employ a variety of techniques for recording and interpreting behavior.
- Evaluation is a cooperative process in which the learner and all those concerned with his growth should participate.
- Evaluation takes into account both the ability of the learner and the standards and competence generally required in the situations in which the individual will be engaged.

Setting up mutually agreed upon values or goals is the first step in the evaluation process. Having defined the goals to be sought, the second step is that of gathering evidence on the progress the individual has made toward achieving the desired goal. The third step involves an analysis and interpretation of the collected evidence. Evaluation of the student teacher's growth, like evaluation of the progress of children and youth, is a continuous process and one which must be based upon evidence as you and your student work together.

FUNCTIONS OF EVALUATION IN STUDENT TEACHING

Before looking more specifically at what the steps in the evaluation process mean as basic principles are applied to appraisal of student teachers' growth, brief consideration of unique functions to be served by evaluation in student teaching is in order. Important among special contributions of effective evaluation of student teachers are the following: (1) continuous evaluation reveals needs and suggests next steps in student teaching; (2) evaluation aids in making decisions regarding the length and nature of student teaching assignments; (3) it serves as a guide to effective placement in a teaching position; and (4) it provides a basis for program modification.

Continuous Evaluation Reveals Needs and Suggests Next Steps in Student Teaching

As you and your student teacher reflect from day to day on your work with children or youth and together plan for their further guidance, both of you will identify points of strength and limitations in your guidance of learners. In what aspects of the teacher's work with pupils, with colleagues, with parents, does your student teacher function easily and effectively? In what areas does he feel comfortable and properly secure? What special competencies does he reveal? In what areas is he having difficulty? The answers to such questions provide for your student teacher a basis for self-improvement. They suggest the kinds of experiences for which he is ready, those which should be included as next steps in student teaching, and the kind of help and guidance he needs in carrying them out.

Cooperative evaluation in student teaching helps to promote growth as you and your student teacher identify needs and plan for meeting them through the selection and guidance of experiences. Cooperative evaluation becomes a means through which you answer such questions as these: In what areas should my student teacher continue to work to assure needed security and desirable satisfactions of success? What experiences, in which he is making steady progress, should be continued to provide needed further growth? What new aspects of the teacher's work

is he ready to undertake? What experiences will help him gain needed controls in areas with which he is having difficulty?

Evaluation Contributes to Decisions on Length of the Student Teaching Assignment and Subsequent Assignments

Continuous evaluation and periodic "stock-taking" of progress contribute to decisions regarding the length of time the student teacher should continue his work with you. The truly effective teacher is a growing teacher. When any teacher does not continue to grow—no matter how many his years of teaching experience—he ceases to be the kind of creative teacher required in the schools of today and tomorrow. Your student teacher, therefore, should never be viewed as a "finished product," as having completed his professional growth and reached his full stature. To promote growth through evaluation means that growth should be guided to the point where the teacher-to-be will continue to grow under his own momentum.

Clearly, not all students will arrive at the point of assured, continuing self-directed growth at the same time and after a particular number of weeks of student teaching. Rather than an arbitrary number of weeks of student teaching, the length of time your student teacher works with you should be determined by the growth which can be provided for him in your particular classroom and school situation. What are his needs at this time? Can the experiences that he needs be provided in your situation? Can they be better provided in another laboratory setting? Has he reached that point in his professional development where he assuredly will continue to grow without further student teaching experiences? The answers given to these questions, as you and your student teacher from time to time take stock of progress made, should determine the length of time he will work with you.

You will recognize, of course, that some colleges are not yet ready to implement thus fully the principle of individual differences as it applies to the work of the student teacher. If you are affiliated with such a college, the same questions must nevertheless be asked. Although your student teacher must continue his

work with you for a given number of weeks, there are ways in which you can help to meet his particular needs. These may be through association with other teachers in your school, through special assignments bearing on the preparation of instructional materials useful in later work, through planned observations in other schools, through all-school committee assignments. Which of these or other experiences will be most fruitful can be determined by the cooperative evaluations made by you and your student teacher.

Where you cannot provide the needed help for your student, it is possible, even within a fixed student teaching period, to recommend another assignment. Cooperative evaluation serves to indicate when another student teaching assignment is desirable and to suggest the nature of that assignment—the type of learners, the kind of curriculum experiences, the nature of the guidance needed. In the large number of cases where the student can profitably continue his work with you throughout the designated period of student teaching (especially if it is his first assignment), periodic evaluation serves to indicate whether a second student teaching assignment is needed and what it should be like. Cooperative evaluation also helps you and the student's college supervisor to know when particular laboratory experiences rather than another period of student teaching would mean most for the student.

Evaluation Serves as a Guide to Effective Placement in a Teaching Position

As a cooperating teacher you have an important role in assisting your student teacher to be placed for his first teaching position in a situation in which he can make his maximum contribution and growth. No one who is asked to include a statement in the student's credentials is in as good position to give evidence of the student's behavior as a teacher as are you and the college supervisor who has been associated with you in the student teaching experience. You, as no one else, can provide the behavioral evidence that means so much to the prospective employer.[1] This is the evidence on which your conferences have

[1] For further discussion of letters of recommendation, see page 462ff.

been based as you and your student teacher have evaluated work done each day, the evidence that is reviewed and sifted as periodically you make a summary evaluation of progress.

From the data gathered during the period of student teaching, and your interpretation of them, you can advise regarding the kind of teaching situation in which your student teacher is most likely to be effective. To what age group and what environmental background does he bring the greatest degree of understanding? What kind of curriculum design will he find congenial to his educational point of view? How much and what should be the nature of the guidance he should receive to help him continue to grow? Your cooperative evaluation with your student teacher will be of help to him when being interviewed for his first position. Cooperative evaluation also will contribute to the student's appropriate placement as you interpret his growth through a letter of recommendation and through discussion with members of the college staff assisting in the placement process.

Evaluation Provides a Basis for Program Modification

Evaluation of the student's work during student teaching can also help to identify aspects of the student teaching experience, and of other parts of the teacher education program, which should be modified. What especially useful understandings and skills do student teachers with whom you have worked bring to their activities with learners, parents, and fellow teachers? Aspects of the college curriculum which have contributed to those understandings and skills should probably be retained. On the other hand, what are the greatest limitations of the student teachers whom you know? With what phases of the teacher's work do they have the greatest difficulty? What do the difficulties and limitations identified through evaluation mean for changes in the college program? Do they suggest needs which might be met through a change in course work? Are additional or different kinds and quality of pre-student-teaching laboratory experiences indicated? What do the needs suggest for changes in the nature, length, and placement of student teaching itself? Through evaluation of the growth of the student teachers with

whom you work, you can both improve work in student teaching and offer important suggestions for needed changes in other parts of the college curriculum.

SETTING GOALS AS THE FIRST STEP IN EVALUATION

As stated previously, the first step in the process of evaluation is the clear identification of mutually understood goals and values. Evaluation cannot take place without reference to some goal or value, whether it be specifically identified or implicitly held.

The Range of the Teacher's Activities Suggests the Goals to Be Sought

For the teacher-to-be it is important that the goals and values sought be explicitly stated. This may be done in several ways. One way is to identify the major activities of the teacher and for each state the needed understandings and skills. This often leads to a rather extended list of goals. Another approach is to recognize that educational principles are the essential factors underlying the teaching-learning process. The over-all goal is ability to implement these principles in carrying out the varied activities of the teacher; to develop the behaviors which are basic to using these principles as guides to action. The latter way of making goals explicit is illustrated in the materials which follow. The same educational principles are seen as basic to the teacher's work in guiding children and youth, in working with parents, in cooperating with colleagues and the profession, and in self-development and community membership.

BASIC EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES SUGGEST THE TEACHER'S BEHAVIORAL GOALS IN GUIDING LEARNERS. A central aspect of the teacher's work is guiding the learning of children and youth. It is the focal point of much of the work with your student teacher, and suggests the first area in which goals and values need to be clarified. In guiding the learning of children and youth, the teacher deals with two sets of values. The first relates to the

goals which represent desired pupil growth. These are the goals discussed and illustrated in Chapter 11 and with reference to which pupil behavior is evaluated. One measure of the teacher's effectiveness is the nature of pupil growth. But these goals are not enough. Every teacher knows that growth of learners is contingent upon the quality of learning experiences provided. What must characterize the quality of experiences if learners are to achieve the desired growth? The answer suggests the second set of values which give direction to the teacher's work with children and youth and thus serve as bases against which to evaluate teaching competence.

This second set of goals relates to the values held to be significant in guiding learning and are derived chiefly from what is known about the learning process. They may be expressed as basic educational principles which govern the selection and guidance of learning experiences. Such principles have been referred to throughout the volume. For example, what is known about learning points to the principle that *individuals learn in terms of their purposes, in terms of the meaning a situation has for them.* This principle suggests that high quality learning experiences are ones in which positive answers can be given to such questions as . . .

- Are experiences directed toward goals or purposes which are recognized and accepted by the learner as worthwhile?
- Are experiences meaningful for individuals and the group in that they relate to learner purposes, are appropriate to maturity levels, recognize past experiences?
- Do the experiences provided help each individual to develop better purposes and better ways of realizing them in the direction of desired values?

To take a second illustration, another basic educational principle is that *individuals differ in their rate, pattern, and ultimate level of development.* To implement this principle, educational experiences would have to be characterized by affirmative answers to the question . . .

- Do the experiences recognize the uniqueness of each individual and provide for differences in needs and potentialities?

These and other educational principles, and the questions that must be answered positively in implementing them, become the goals which the teacher seeks to achieve as he works with children and youth. They are the goals which give direction to the teacher's behavior and against which he evaluates his progress in guiding learning.

THE SAME EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES SERVE AS GOALS IN WORKING WITH PARENTS. A second aspect of your work with which your student teacher will be concerned relates to the role of parents in the work of the school. This area of activity suggests the significance of home-school relationships and the importance of providing opportunities for your student teacher to work with parents. At once there comes to mind the need for experiences in which a pupil's progress and his special needs are shared with parents and plans are cooperatively developed by which home and school can support, supplement, and enrich his experiences. There are also those activities in which the teacher, through individual and group conferences and through the work of the Parent-Teacher Association, learns of the goals which parents have in relation to their children and of their understanding of the work of the particular class and of the larger school unit. Then, too, there are those situations in which parents and other laymen work with teachers in developing basic policies and in sharing their special abilities as resource persons.

What are the guides which will help your student teacher to work effectively in these situations? What are the goals toward which he should work? Against what goals and values should his efforts be evaluated? The answer suggested is based on the fact that the same educational principles apply in relations with parents as in work with children or youth. Parents, too, are individuals who have different abilities and backgrounds of experience. Discussions of policies, of curriculum, and of the growth of children must take into account parental backgrounds and abilities—what will be needed for effective communication, how ideas can be made meaningful. Parents, like their children, respond to a situation in terms of their purposes. To what extent is your student teacher able and willing to understand the point of view of parents, to identify their purposes and relate work to

them, and to help them arrive at better purposes by sharing with them the special understandings of the professional teacher? Does the student teacher effectively apply the principle of "wholeness" in determining the time for parent contacts and what to include in any single discussion—taking into account the emotional overtones in any situation involving one's own children, and the factor of physical fatigue? Your student teacher will need your help in using these and other basic educational principles in working with parents. You can help him see what the principles mean as you plan for work with parents and as together you reflect on how effectively they have been implemented in experiences which he and you have had with parents.

EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES ALSO APPLY TO WORK WITH COLLEAGUES AND TO THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN THE PROFESSION. Many teachers work effectively with children and parents but find it difficult to relate themselves positively to fellow teachers and administration or to the larger professional group of educators. Inability to work well with colleagues often means failure to bring about needed curriculum and other changes in the work of the school. For some teachers it means working alone and missing the growth and satisfactions that come from professional contacts. How to relate oneself to colleagues and to the larger teaching profession is the third area of your work in which your student teacher should participate and in which his growth should be noted.

Once again it is suggested that the same basic principles of education govern effective work with one's peers. Fellow teachers and administrators are another group of adults each with his own purposes and with a background of experience and abilities that make certain things meaningful and others of little value. How does your student teacher take account of the principles of purpose and individual difference and other educational principles? How does he relate his purposes to those of other teachers? How does he react to the teacher who tends to respond negatively to proposals? Does he tend to criticize or to seek better understanding of the teacher and to relate the desired goal to the teacher's concerns? How does he interpret teacher opposition to administrative proposals? Is he inclined to side with the

majority and to criticize those who do not accept administrative recommendations, or to seek to understand what meaning the proposal has for those who are opposed? How does he see himself and other teachers working for more effective functioning? Helping your student teacher to use educational principles as guides in working with other teachers, and in interpreting the actions of other members of the school staff, will contribute to his growth toward effective membership in a school faculty and the profession of teaching. As he participates in faculty meetings, works on school committees, meets teachers informally in the lounge and lunchroom, shares in social activities of the staff, there will be opportunities to test the meaning of the principles when applied to work with one's peers and to evaluate the progress he is making toward working effectively as a faculty member.

It is implied above that one aspect of the teacher's role with peers relates to his membership in professional groups beyond the school unit and his attitude toward the teaching profession. Through his work in student teaching the teacher-to-be deepens his insight into what it means to be a professional person and the nature of the activities of professional groups. It is to be hoped that your student teacher will share with you in such professional experiences as attending and overtly participating in meetings of professional organizations, reading and contributing to such professional organs as magazines or system-wide bulletins, attending meetings of the board of education or other public meetings on educational issues. Here, too, he will need your help in interpreting his experiences and the way in which he responds and behaves. Can he soundly apply the principles of purpose, of balanced development, of individual needs and abilities in deciding on the professional activities in which he should engage? Does he maintain a professional attitude in keeping with his values and the educational principles he espouses? How does he interpret and react to varied kinds of professional activities?

GOALS OF SELF-DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY MEMBERSHIP AFFECT THE WORK OF THE TEACHER. While experiences in student teaching are focused primarily on the student's activities

as a teacher, there is need to consider his growth as an individual and a citizen. The student teacher, like every individual, responds as a whole organism. The principle of "wholeness" and other educational principles apply to your student teacher just as they apply to his work with pupils, parents, and colleagues. To illustrate with another principle, "balance" in experiences is important for your student teacher during the period of student teaching. Is he able to carry on a normal personal and social life and meet the demands of the teacher's work? To carry out plans for self-development and be responsible for one's share in community participation, while meeting professional obligations, is an art with which your student teacher may need help. You, more than almost any other person with whom the college student works, can give help when this becomes a problem. Further, your close and intimate association with the student places you in a unique role in helping him identify his needs in self-development and community membership.

You may feel that helping the student with self-development is a major responsibility of someone else. Even if you do, the fact that the student teacher responds as a whole organism makes it impossible to ignore his growth as an individual and citizen as these aspects of his development affect his work as a teacher. Actually, you may be curious as to why no reference has been made in this discussion to such commonly named items of evaluation as "speech," "voice," "vitality," "cooperation," "initiative." The very fact that these personal qualities do affect the teacher's work is the reason for looking at them in their role as *affecting factors.* For example, voice is not important in and of itself. While a well-modulated, pleasing voice is to be desired, the important factor in evaluation is the effect of the teacher's voice upon the persons with whom he works. Speech is most important, but evaluation of it, too, must take into account the way it affects learners and the learning process. A slight speech defect may be more critical in the case of the teacher of young children who are learning speech patterns than for the teacher of high school youth. Further, the real quality of the prospective teacher's speech can only be determined as his attention is directed to what he is trying to help learners achieve at any given time rather than focused on his speech. The same is true of such

qualities as vitality and cooperation. Vitality and other characteristics of good health are a must for every teacher. But good health, in and of itself, does not make the teacher. The significant factor is the way in which the teacher and the teacher-to-be use health qualities in implementing basic educational principles as they guide learning experiences and as they demonstrate by their own behavior sound health practices. In like manner, cooperativeness is an important quality for the teacher, but what it means can only be determined by studying the behavior of the teacher as he uses educational principles in his work with children, parents, and colleagues. Does he understand that cooperation is possible only as he can relate his purpose to those of others? In his efforts to work cooperatively, does he recognize the differences in abilities and backgrounds of individuals and make allowance for them in the ways he works—in what he says, in what he does, in the way in which he reacts to opposition? Does his behavior show that he recognizes that cooperation is based upon such interrelated factors as ability, feeling and emotional tone, and physical well-being?

Rather than focus directly on goals of self-development, it is suggested that personal qualities be conceived as factors that affect teaching. To illustrate further, limitations in communication skills can become evident as the student teacher endeavors to share ideas with learners and to guide their discussions. The need for greater tolerance can be revealed as the student participates in and reacts to faculty meetings or as he varies his response to pupils having different racial or socio-economic backgrounds. Looked at this way you can help your student teacher to see the importance of a particular characteristic or quality and to understand the reason for giving attention to self-development in a particular area. He will understand why energy should be placed in one direction rather than another. He will be able to identify the goals of self-development toward which he should work and his activities will take on added meaning. His goals in this area, like those relating to work with pupils, parents, and colleagues, should be stated in terms of the behavior he seeks to achieve.

The four areas of evaluation discussed in this section are recognizable parts of a closely knit whole. They are parts of a

whole which has as its primary concern providing the best possible experiences for children and youth—experiences which help to develop boys and girls, men and women, who meet situations of daily living with competence, creativity, and ideals. To realize this goal requires clarity of direction and the implementation of what is held significant in the growth of learners and in the learning process. Basic educational principles are suggested as the central thread unifying the process of evaluation. By testing what these principles mean for work with boys and girls, parents, colleagues, and for self-development, the teacher can identify goals for his own behavior. These behavioral goals become the criteria against which you and your student teacher evaluate progress and determine next steps.

Help Your Student Teacher to Set His Goals

How can you best help a student teacher identify his behavioral goals and see their relation to basic educational principles? He may or may not have a clearly defined set of educational principles when he comes to work with you. He may find it difficult at first to think in terms of principles; he may find it more useful to begin with the questions which every teacher needs to ask regarding learning experiences. Or, he may bring with him to student teaching a checklist or some other evaluative form which includes a section relating to his work with children or youth—possibly including such items as "discipline," "knowledge of subject matter," "use of instructional materials." Any of these—educational principles, questions, checklists—can serve as a basis for helping the student to identify his goals. You will find it useful to discover the particular way in which the student presently views his goals and note the criteria by which he would evaluate his work as a student teacher.

The student teacher who comes with a set of educational principles will want to compare them with yours, and together you can spell out the implied behavioral goals or key questions which must be answered in implementing each principle. You and your student may find it helpful to develop a worksheet in which the questions suggesting essential characteristics of a high qual-

ity learning experience and the underlying principles are shown in relationship. The following is illustrative.

Educational Principles	Basic Questions	Behavioral Goals
1. Physical, mental, social, and emotional development all take place simultaneously and each is related to the other.	What contribution will the experiences make to pupil growth in the various aspects of development?	Checks experiences for their potential contribution to each aspect of development. Selects experiences with regard for their contribution to needed growth in each aspect of development.
2. Learnings are multiple; all factors in a situation affect the learning that takes place.	Will the factors in the learning environment contribute to the desired learning? How will the learning be affected by the attitudes and feelings, the unique abilities and the needs of individuals?	Interprets the learning environment to include the learners themselves, people as well as things. Examines a range of factors in the learning situation for their probable effect upon learning. Brings into the environment factors which will contribute to the desired learning.

For the mature student teacher who begins his work with you with some rather clearly conceived principles, such a work guide may be developed in conference early in the student teaching experience, as together you explore what each principle means for working with learners and for judging the effectiveness of your work. More often the guide will be developed gradually as daily work with pupils is evaluated and plans are made for subsequent teaching. As your student teacher uses the questions or behavioral goals to test projected teaching plans and to evaluate the way in which they were developed with learners, educational principles will take on new meaning. He will also discover their interrelatedness. For example, the two principles just illustrated are closely related to the principle of individual differences.

For the student who is not articulate about educational principles, the more appropriate beginning point is the questions

which the teacher must ask in planning and in reflecting on learning experiences. For this student the process will be reversed, and any worksheet which he may develop will move from the question to the underlying principles.

Basic Questions	Educational Principles
1. Is the experience *continuous* with the life of the learner—does it grow out of and relate back to his everyday living?	1. The more closely learning experiences resemble the situations in which the learning will be used, the more adequate the learning will be. Something can be said to be learned when the individual is willing and able to use it appropriately—when it affects behavior.
2. Does the experience lead to understanding of fundamental concepts and *generalizations*—and their use in new situations?	2. Understandings and generalizations are the bases for action in new and different situations.

This student, too, as noted in the illustration, will discover that a single question and the implied behavioral goal will often be rooted in more than one educational principle. He, too, will see how basic principles condition the teacher's decisions regarding what and how to teach.

You doubtless will find that some of your student teachers will not be ready, at the beginning of their work with you, to focus on such comprehensive questions as those used in the illustrations. The beginning point in working with your student teacher may be with questions that show that his attention is on the teacher alone and not on the learning experience and what the teacher does to provide that experience. This is suggested when the question raised is: "Does the teacher have control of the subject matter?" Or, your student teacher may by his question—"Does the teacher maintain discipline?"—show that his initial concern is with a particular concept of pupil behavior. Or, he may, as suggested earlier, refer to items on a checklist or evaluation form which is a part of the handbook he has received from the college. Implementing the educational principles which you hold and which you hope to help him to understand, you will start with the question or characteristic of a high quality

learning experience he perceives. The purpose, however, does not change. You will try to help him identify essentials of a high quality learning experience and to understand the principles that are basic to achieving that end. For example, starting with his concern about "discipline" you might proceed as follows:

Basic Questions	Educational Principles
1. What is meant by "discipline"?	
2. Why are teachers concerned about appropriate behavior?	
a. Inappropriate behavior leads to negative learning.	2a. The individual learns that which he experiences—that to which he responds and that in which he is involved.
b. Negative factors affect what is gained regarding the desired learning.	b. Learnings are multiple; all factors in a situation affect the learning that takes place.
3. What causes inappropriate behavior? How can disciplinary difficulties be avoided?	3. The individual learns in terms of his purposes, in terms of the meaning a situation has for him.

Through careful consideration of the points outlined your student will be helped both to understand basic principles and to arrive at such behavioral goals as those suggested by the following basic questions . . .

- Are the experiences directed toward goals or purposes which are recognized and accepted by the learner as worthwhile?
- Are the experiences meaningful for the learner in that they relate to his purposes, are appropriate to his maturity and stage of development, recognize his past experiences?

These two questions might also suggest the behavioral goals reached with a student whose initial proposal for evaluating a teaching-learning situation or his own progress as a teacher might be verbalized as "Does the teacher understand the children?" Together you would explore what this question means for the teacher's behavior. What does the teacher need to know about learners? Why does he want to know these particular things? How will he use what he knows about pupils? How can he gain the desired understanding? The critical factor is not just in knowing and understanding children but in putting that

understanding to work in selecting and guiding learning experiences.

Steps similar to those illustrated can be taken as your student teacher works with parents and colleagues.

GATHERING EVIDENCE ON WHICH TO BASE EVALUATION

The need for specific, objective, cumulative evidence applies equally to evaluating a student teacher's growth and to interpreting the progress of children or youth. Like the evidence of children's growth, the data on your student teacher's progress are derived from the everyday situations of living and learning in which the student engages.

Behavior, Ideas Expressed, and Samples of Work Provide the Essential Evidence

A large part of the evidence to which you and your student teacher will turn as you evaluate a particular piece of work or note progress over a given period of time will be derived from careful observation of the student teacher at work with children, parents, or colleagues. If you are analyzing and evaluating a teaching-learning situation, the evidence may be found in the running record of what took place during the lesson. This kind of recording of teacher-pupil behavior and interaction is discussed in Chapter 13 (see pages 361–370). If, on the other hand, the focus is on growth over a given time interval there will be added to the "running notes" on work observed a number of anecdotal recordings of significant incidents and behavior. The following are illustrative of records of observed behavior of student teachers.

> RUTH SIMPSON 9/25
> Ralph is manipulating the bell on one of the children's bicycles. Student council has requested that the children not play with them. Reminded Ralph of request. Follows through despite his arguments that he knows the owner—that Hugh wouldn't care. "Since we (the kindergartners) agreed not to play around the bicycles, let us find something that would be fun to do. Donald needs a partner at the teeter-totter, or you might like to go indoors and get a ball."

KEN GLEASON 2/17
Made available student-rate tickets for Hamlet, showing at the local theater.

DICK GRAHAM 10/29
Mr. Graham called attention to markers in the books on special shelf of materials relating to the youngsters' study of the Federal Government, stating that he had listed questions to guide their reading. When Greta selected a book without a marker, he said, "Don't use that book, we do not have questions for it."

DICK GRAHAM 11/9
"You will not find markers or questions in the reference books. We have guides, do we not, in the sub-questions of our problem. When I state the questions and give the page references, I really cheat you out of learning how to use resource books. Let me know if you have any difficulty."

A second source of evidence will be found in records of ideas expressed in individual conferences, in group situations with parents or teachers, in logs or reaction statements.

CONFERENCE WITH JANET GREEN—3/22
Parents can give real help—but why do some of them do such awful things to children? I am thinking of Judith's father, who told her to ask when she was going to read the thick book with the hard cover. Another example is Jim, who stated, "My mother told me I must read every day."

CONFERENCE WITH PAUL FOSKY—10/2
(Informal discussion in teacher's lounge.) I think parents are right in asking that their children have homework. It keeps them at home at night. I think they ought to have an assignment in every class.

CONFERENCE WITH PAUL FOSKY—2/13
I've changed my mind about homework. Youngsters should have some work responsibility each night but it doesn't have to be "homework" of the kind I used to argue for—written work or reading of assigned pages. Giving specific and exact assignments of that kind doesn't help them make the kind of decisions they will have to make in college—and certainly when they are employed. . . . And, there are lots of ways to work on

a problem—thinking about it, talking with their parents and other people, using a variety of printed materials. . . . Tony certainly got a lot out of talking with a neighbor about the legal aspects of condemning property—and he added a lot to our class discussion. . . .

LOG OF GRACE DONOVAN

Nature of Activities	*Comments*
9/20 Routine duties Observation Helped several children in art center with clay work 9/23 Observed the science and home economics periods. Observed physical ed. During the centers period helped two children make a chart for the experiment with white rats.	How can we honestly say that the activities we as teachers engage in with the children spring directly from child interests when those interests are manifested generally by only a handful (at best) which we light joyfully upon because they lead in the direction we want to go? After we've once moved into an activity most of the children are engaging in it with genuine interest. I can't actually see why a teacher-planned activity at the *level and interest* of that particular group isn't just as good (in every respect) as a *child-interest* activity. Children can be vitally interested in many things which they might not up to that point have come in contact with.

A third kind of evidence is found in the materials developed by the student teacher in carrying out his various activities—unit and daily plans, instructional materials prepared, records made of pupil behavior and progress, a working paper of basic educational principles. How effectively does the student teacher plan for guiding learning experiences? Has he grown in his ability to envision what ought to take place with a group? In what way(s) do his current plans differ from his earlier ones? How ingenious is he in preparing instructional materials? What do the materials he develops suggest about his educational point of view, about the teacher's role and the learner's part in the development and use of materials? The evidence on which to answer these and other questions is to be found in the materials which your student teacher develops.

These three sources of data provide the essential evidence which you and your student teacher will use in evaluating his progress. Other background data will help in understanding and interpreting the student teacher's work. These data relate to factors which affect his teaching—health, previous experiences with children or youth, special interests and abilities. Some of these data may be provided by the college; others may be secured through data blanks filled out by the student as a part of his student teaching application.

Cumulative Records Are Needed to Provide the Necessary Evidence

To have at hand significant evidence upon which to base an evaluation of your student teacher's growth, there is need for adequate records that picture him in action. The same system of cumulative records found useful in studying the growth of pupils, and discussed in Chapter 11, is applicable to work with student teachers. Behavioral incidents, such as those noted in the preceding section, can conveniently be recorded on 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 note pads and be held for periodic review and selection of significant incidents for inclusion in the student teacher's permanent cumulative record. The selected items can be transferred to the appropriate sheets which make up the permanent record of the student teacher's activities. Eight by twelve sheets, each headed with one of the major goals or areas of desired growth, can serve as effective forms for recording the selected incidents. One or more such permanent record forms will be needed for reporting growth in implementing educational principles in working with children or youth. Some cooperating teachers like a separate sheet for reporting progress in relation to each principle—identifying and relating experiences to pupil purposes, providing for individual differences, guiding pupils in generalizing, providing for balanced development, and the like. These teachers select from running records of work observed particular episodes that illustrate growth in implementing the particular principle and transfer them to the permanent record form along with appropriate anecdotal records of other behavioral incidents. Other cooperating teachers prefer a single heading which encompasses all principles as they relate to

work with pupils, and use it chiefly to record significant incidents. They then attach to this form several sets of "running notes" of work observed and include on the notes the analysis of the work in terms of principles (see pages 375–377). You and your student teacher will need to experiment with the kind of permanent record which is most meaningful and useful in watching his progress and as an instrument for pointing up needs and next steps. The following are illustrative of several permanent record forms of the kind discussed here.

WORK WITH HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS
(Core Program)

Providing for Individual Differences

9/10 Asked why Margot was given an extra day in submitting her paper. "Isn't this being partial to Margot?"

9/21 Plan included: "Mike will probably want to work on the expression of religion through art—cave temples, Taj Mahal."

10/27 See attached running record of class.

11/8 Suggested that Sally take an added day or two to complete a piece of work. (Explained in conference—"Sally is preparing a good report, but she works more slowly than the others —she really checks and double-checks each major item. And in addition, she just moves and thinks more slowly.")

11/12 . . . . . .

Relating Work to Pupils' Everyday Experience (Purposes)

9/2 Seemed troubled when we were discussing work for the year and I suggested a unit on religion. When asked, her comment was, "I know high school pupils have very real concerns about religion and ethics. But should the school deal with such concerns?"

9/4 As we completed our over-all plans (for the present, at least) Miss Jensen commented, "Do you think this will really get them ready for college?" Couldn't tell whether she meant that this would be a meaningful experience or that what was planned would probably not take care of college needs. (Felt it too early to press the point.)

10/17 Called attention to youngster's comments regarding part-time job interests—especially what they should be paid. Suggested this would be an important problem—"They really are asking for help in deciding. Wouldn't it be a good beginning for our unit on Earning a Living? Only we ought to do it now—as soon as we can include it—don't you think?"

10/22 See attached record—effectively implemented her proposal of 10/17.

11/6 . . . . . .

Other permanent record sheets would relate respectively to the implementation of basic principles in working with parents and with colleagues. You will also want a sheet for recording behavior as it bears on the factors which affect teaching—health, voice and speech, other personal qualities. In gathering data relating to these factors of self-development, you may prefer a single record form or a form for each major factor. Again, this is an area in which you may wish to experiment to discover the record form which serves best your purposes and those of your student teacher. The following shows part of one student teacher's permanent record as it relates to work with parents.

WORK WITH PARENTS

Providing for Individual Differences

2/17 "Don't you think we should have a conference with Mrs. Robb about Bobby's progress before we send the report? Her over-concern for Bobby makes it difficult for her to have perspective on his work, doesn't it? We don't want her getting excited like she did the last time—it's bad for Bobby."

4/9 Recognized the need for Donald's father to gain status—mother-father conflict. Was able in conference (which Miss Toletti was leading) to recognize this need and use it in child's interest. Mr. Bronson asked about buying Donald electric train. Suggested train could be used in limited ways by a five-year-old (really too mature for a five-year-old)—and suggested that Mr. B. (handy with tools) could build some climbing equipment for his son's birthday.

5/21 Commented at PTA committee meeting as follows: "Do you think it would be important to ask parents from the Spanish section of our community to serve on the nominating committee and be sure that at least one of the officers is from their group? I think that would help in making members of that group feel wanted and comfortable. They haven't been very active thus far."

The gathering of such data is of value only as it helps you and your student teacher better to understand his growth and his needs. The critical question is how to interpret the evidence.

INTERPRETING AND REPORTING THE STUDENT TEACHER'S PROGRESS

Helping your student interpret his behavior and sharing with him your analysis of it are important and valued aspects of your work as a supervisor of student teachers. There is probably no area of his work about which the college student is more wholesomely concerned. He seeks your reactions to his behavior and your help in working more effectively. He wants to know where he stands in terms of competence in his chosen profession.

Evaluation of Daily Progress Should Provide Constructive Criticism and Help

If professional growth is to result from evaluation, reactions to the student teacher's work must be constructively critical and help the individual to know what to do in taking next steps.

CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICISM IS BOTH APPRECIATIVE AND CORRECTIVE. Constructive criticism recognizes aspects of a situation which led to positive learning and those which were detrimental and limiting. One of the frequent concerns of student teachers, expressed to each other and voiced to their college advisers, is that the cooperating teacher "doesn't tell me what he really thinks." It is the uncertainty that the student teacher finds most disconcerting and hardest to cope with. He wants to know how you feel about his work and he wants your help to make it better. For the student it is easier to face the fact that work was poorly done than to feel that he cannot count on the cooperating teacher to help him make a forthright evaluation. He is ready for corrective criticism through which he is helped to see weaknesses. He is ready for and really appreciates only criticism that is genuine. But honest criticism also means recognizing and encouraging abilities, including appreciative reactions for things well done. There is seldom a teaching-learning situation that does not have some elements fostering productive learning. They, too, must be recognized in evaluation that is to be helpful and lead to desired teaching competence.

To recognize both positive and negative elements in a situation should not be interpreted, however, to mean that the constructive elements should be discussed before attention is given to those that were unproductive or even harmful to learners. Some cooperating teachers hold that by starting with the positive factors a better atmosphere is created and the student teacher is then ready to receive the negative reactions more constructively. This would seem to be a misconception for several reasons. First, knowing that you will and should point out aspects that were inadequately handled, the student soon identifies the sequential pattern of your criticism, and the joy that can come from knowing that something was well done is sometimes minimized by wondering and waiting for the negative criticism which is to follow. This is true especially when the student feels that things didn't go very well and he knows that you will surely need to talk together about why the difficulties arose. In fact, his real concern and urge may be to get at once at what was wrong, to see if you think it was as bad as he feels it was, and to get help so that he will not make similar errors the next day. To hold off getting at his real concern is failing to recognize the learner's purpose. To spend much time considering the positive things that happen may take from the student a degree of confidence in his ability to evaluate his work. One student expressed his feeling this way, "Don't try to tell me it was good. At least let me have the satisfaction of knowing that I know poor teaching and a low quality learning experience."

A second reason for not always beginning evaluation with positive factors is that instead of focusing on the nature of the learning experience for pupils, attention tends to be on the feelings and reactions of the teacher observed. While these feelings cannot be ignored, one of the areas of growth desired for the student teacher is that of genuine concern for learners and a dedication to providing high level experiences for them. The focus is not a matter of how well or how poorly did *I* do, but of what can be done to provide better experiences for the youngsters.

In focusing on principles as listed in the evaluative criteria being used or on student questions as they are raised, without reference to whether the resulting evaluation points to positive or negative elements, two other items should be kept in mind. One, it is helpful to make evaluation a "we" process. The evaluation is

in fact in terms of the experience in which both of you had a part, no matter who was carrying major responsibility at the time. Cooperative teaching makes it a natural response to say, "This principle suggests that there is need to . . . ; that we should try . . ." rather than, "If you had . . . ; your procedure . . ." Second, as principles which you and the student are finding especially difficult are identified, they can become the focus for special study and subsequent evaluation of teaching and attention may be turned to them at once to note progress. In this case, the student's purpose and yours become the motive for starting with a particular principle.

CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICISM IS SPECIFIC AND OFFERS DEFINITE SUGGESTIONS FOR NEXT STEPS TO BE TAKEN. In addition to the feeling that cooperating teachers have not shared all their real reactions with them, student teachers express a need for less generalized and more specific help. They feel that criticism often is so general that it gives little idea as to what should be done, and accordingly they are at a loss to know what to do next in planning for and returning to the classroom situation. To be useful, evaluation must be specific to the point of recognizing conditioning factors in the particular situation. Rather than merely indicating that Bob's ability to read more rapidly was not provided for, there is need to consider specifically what his reading ability is and what special provisions should be made—approximate time he would require to do the job, what he would tend to do when finished, and what kind of guidance would be needed to help him use the time profitably. While evaluation of this kind is after the fact, it is through such critical analysis that the student learns how and what to take into account in planning for the next such experience.

Also, it is the kind of evaluation in which criticism is contingent upon the conditioning factors in the particular situation. Proposals made are those which can be carried out in the situation. Suggestions to have more difficult reading material for Bob, to have him work in the library on such reference books as encyclopedias, or to advise him to use the time in the shop to increase his motor skills must each be considered in light of their practicability in the particular setting. As good as the suggestion may

be, it is of little value to urge that more difficult reading material be provided if no such material bearing on the area of study is available or can be secured. Nor is it useful to propose that Bob go to the library if administrative regulations make this an impossibility. When a proposal is made it is necessary to test its feasibility. Working in the shop might be a most valuable experience, but what guidance is available to Bob and are his controls and skills in this area such that he can take care of himself? What is going on in the shop at the time? Will this interfere with Bob's work or with the scheduled activity? When criticism is specific, many proposals may be made, but each must be explored for its practicability in the actual setting. A variety of suggestions helps the student teacher to see a range of possibilities and to be creative in making proposals. At the same time, careful consideration of proposals helps the student to be practical in his creativeness, to find ways in which barriers can be removed, and to see what it means to bring about change.

When criticism is specific in terms of the particular situation, it contributes to clarifying steps to be taken. It acts as a safeguard against destroying existing practice without putting something in its place. It is relatively easy to be critical, to point out what should be changed; it often is much more difficult to say what should be done about what is wrong. Of course there will be times when everyone involved will sense that the learning experience was below par, that there were evident weaknesses and these can be identified, yet no one evaluating the situation can clarify the cause of the difficulty. Why didn't the particular educational principle function? It is important in such cases to indicate clearly that a difficulty is evident but what to do about it is unknown. This is quite a different use of criticism than just pointing out the weakness and leaving the student with the burden of trying to find out why and what should be done. When it is made clear that the cause is not known, both you and your student carry responsibility for trying to discover why. It is in the nature of a challenge to share any hunches that either of you may have. The situation has a parallel in the teacher saying, "I don't know," to a question asked by a pupil. In general, however, criticism should not stress weaknesses without making specific suggestions for ways to overcome them.

From the specific criticism and positive proposals for next steps, as you and your student teacher evaluate work from day to day, come the abilities to make equally helpful long-range proposals. Summary evaluations of growth over a period of time also should be appreciative, corrective, genuine, specific, and make meaningful proposals for next steps in the student's continuous growth.

Qualitative Summary Evaluations Are Needed to Report Development of Teaching Competence

Teaching is a very complex art. The four major aspects of the teacher's work discussed in an earlier section of this chapter—work with pupils, parents, and colleagues, and as a citizen–teacher in the community—are many-faceted. Adequately to report or share the progress your student teacher is making in even one of these areas requires qualitative analyses. A letter grade is no more adequate in this instance, and for the same reasons, than it was found to be when trying to report pupil growth (see page 310). While your student teacher may be pleased with a grade if it is good, it is of little help to him in that it only indicates that you think well of his work as a whole.

A summary record similar to the one outlined for reporting pupil progress has been found helpful by both students and cooperating teachers. This, it will be recalled, is a threefold summary statement in which each of the areas of growth are reported to show (1) present level or stage of progress, (2) supporting evidence, and (3) recommended next steps. The first two parts of the summary are based upon a study of the data recorded on the permanent record sheets. A review of the data found in the permanent record should give a picture of the student teacher's present behavior with reference to the particular goal sought, and progress made can be noted by comparing early notations with those made later. Recommendations—the third part of the summary record—can result from reviewing the first two columns with your student teacher and together setting up plans for next steps. There follows a partial summary record in two areas of desired growth.

WORK WITH PUPILS—HIGH SCHOOL

NAME: *Dorothy Dodson* DATE: *4/12*

Analysis		*Evidence*	*Recommendations*
PROVIDING FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES			
Differentiates assignments and requirements in order to meet individual needs.	9/10	Asked why Margot was given an extra day in submitting her paper. "Isn't this being partial to Margot?"	
	1/8	Granted Bob's request for extension of time so that he could visit Weather Bureau before reporting.	
Tends to hold all work to the total class situation, even when children are ready and competent to work in groups.	10/6	"I know they were doing a good job in their small groups. But I don't feel that I know what is happening."	In second student teaching assignment, work in a situation where there is more group work.
	1/5	"I know, Jim, that some of you know a good bit about preparing reports, but let's all share our ideas."	
RELATING WORK TO EVERYDAY EXPERIENCES			
Everyday experiences used as beginning point of work, but then often moves to remote material.	10/17	Suggested beginning work on Earning a Living with pupil concerns about payment for part-time jobs. (See running record of initial work with pupils in implementing this proposal.) Pupils' obvious enthusiasm affected by lack of opportunity to share in planning and lack of relation of the teacher's proposal to the immediate problem. "We can probably best get at our problem by finding out the various ways of making a living and then seeing what each involves and its positive elements, including compensation."	Give attention in planning unit to provide for learners to plan way of working on problem. (More practice needed.)

Limited cooperative planning with pupils — tends to pre-plan way of getting at a problem which the pupils share in identifying.	1/12	See attached running record of planning lesson with pupils.

The time at which such summary evaluations will be useful will vary from one student teacher to another. They should be made whenever "stock taking" is needed to give the student teacher desirable security, to provide a basis for making decisions regarding next steps in the student teaching situation or to determine the length of the student teaching assignment and post-student-teaching needs, to provide a record of work done during student teaching, or to contribute to the student's placement credentials.

How Can Requests for Evaluation in Terms of Grades, Rating Scales, Checklists Best Be Met?

You may be associated with a college which uses letter grades or special checklists or rating scales for evaluating work in student teaching. Limitations of letter grades have already been referred to in this chapter and discussed in greater detail in Chapter 11. Rating scales and checklists have many of the same limitations. While such instruments do refer to specific factors, these weaknesses may be noted. First, the items selected for evaluation may or may not be the behavioral goals toward which you and your student teacher are working. Second, most such scales or lists ask for a numerical rating of each of the specific items—for example, a rating of 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 on such items as:

Personal Qualities	*Techniques of Teaching*
1. Appearance	1. Ability to create learning situations
2. Voice and manner	2. Balance of teacher-child participation
3. Culture and interests	3. Achievement of goals
4.	4. . . . .

At best the ratings on such scales reflect the particular values which the rater holds and these are not known to those who re-

view the checklist or scale. Third, and perhaps most important, many of the items can only be valued with reference to the setting of which they are a part. On page 441 of this chapter reference was made to the need to see such personal items as voice and appearance as factors affecting teaching. The same holds true of other items on such a checklist. Take, for example, "Balance of teacher-child participation." Desirable balance of teacher-pupil participation can only be determined with reference to the particular situation. There may be obvious balance of participation, but of questionable value, if the situation is one in which the teacher asks a specific question and the pupil supplies an answer. More than balance must be considered to provide a meaningful evaluative statement. What is the reason for desiring balanced participation? Attention to pupil participation is prompted by the basic principle of involvement, of learning by doing, of learning in terms of that to which an individual responds. The principle is the important factor; the nature of the participation which truly involves the learner will differ with time and circumstance. Doubtless those who develop such checklists or rating scales have specific values in mind, but it is difficult to make these clear in such an instrument either to the rater or to those who look at the rating.

Fourth, the evaluation of many of these items as single entities is of little value. This is particularly true of personal qualities of the teacher. The teacher, just as teaching itself, is a complex of many elements. There is no "ideal teacher," with so much of this quality and so much of that ability. Each teacher is unique, and it is the particular combination of qualities that makes each an effective guide of learners. True, it is important that every teacher have a sense of humor, but just how much and of what nature the humor should be to make the best teacher no one knows. There are great teachers who are known for their sense of humor, and equally great teachers who are known to have a limited sense of "the fun of things." It becomes necessary, then, to see specific factors as they affect the teaching-learning situation. It is for this reason that throughout this discussion the position is taken that basic principles of education are the most useful combination of specific but interrelated goals for evaluating the work of the teacher.

What can you do if asked by the college to use instruments such

as scales and lists, or to give a letter grade? Colleges are gradually moving away from using letter grades for student teaching, even when they continue to use them in reporting progress in course work. In some instances the movement is to such symbols as "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory," which in and of themselves have little meaning. Any change is usually gradual. Therefore, it may be necessary for you to conform to the college policy. To make the grade more meaningful, and to give your student teacher a critical and helpful analysis of his growth, it is suggested that the grade be accompanied by a descriptive qualitative summary statement, such as the three-column form proposed on page 458. In like manner, if it is requested that you use a rating scale or checklist supplied by the college, a supplementary qualitative analysis in terms of educational principles will prove useful. It will also make the student teaching experience more valuable for your student teacher if you will discuss the items on the particular evaluative instrument so as to help him see what they mean in terms of educational principles, and if you together evaluate growth in each item in light of that common understanding.

Evaluation of Growth Should Take Account of Both Rate of Development and Demands of the Profession

In interpreting and reporting progress you have a dual responsibility—to your student teacher and to the teaching profession. As noted earlier, your student teacher wants your help and your critical interpretation of his progress and his potential for becoming an effective teacher. You are in a unique position to give him that help. It means doing everything you can to assist him in becoming a sound guide of children or youth. It means making a careful study of his actual growth during the period of student teaching and envisioning his potential for further growth. It means recognizing that some student teachers have a slower rate of growth than others, that some make steady progress toward their goals while others develop by spurts and plateaus. Studying your student teacher, and helping him to understand his own learning process and nature of development, is part of your responsibility in evaluating and reporting progress.

While the student teacher is central in the evaluation process, consideration must be given to the demands of the profession. You represent the teaching profession as you work with your student teacher. Does the evidence show that he has "what it takes" to become a good teacher? What still needs to be done to help him reach that point of development where he will continue to grow on the job under his own momentum? Growth alone is not enough in looking at the student teacher's progress. Unless the evidence shows that your student has the understandings and skills required of the effective teacher—or can reasonably be expected to develop them through further study and added direct experience—your responsibility to the profession demands that he be directed into some other channel of work. You, of course, will not wish to make such a decision alone. Both you and your student teacher will want to consider the situation with representatives of the college. But you can and should play an important part in helping your student to see himself realistically. Not only is this a responsibility which your profession places upon you, but it is something that you owe to your student teacher. It is no kindness to the student to support his membership in the profession of teaching when he will not be successful and will find little satisfaction in his work as a teacher. Selective redirection of some students will be indicated by the evidence, and such decisions should be arrived at as soon as adequate evidence is at hand.

The Summary Evaluation Record Can Serve as a Basis for Recommendations

The summary record can provide the kind of information the prospective employer should and usually does desire about the teachers he appoints. Many principals and superintendents are glad to study such a summary record, and discuss it with you or the college supervisor who has been working with you and your student. In fact, it is helpful if the prospective employer can observe the student teacher at work and talk with both of you. This is not always possible, of course, and when observation is not feasible the summary record which includes evidence serves to give one of the most clear-cut pictures of the student teacher in

action. In fact, it is often helpful to attach to the three-column summary record a running account of a lesson which characterizes the student teacher's stage of development by showing him in action in guiding the learning process.[2]

Some colleges have special forms for writing letters of recommendation to be filed in the placement office. In these colleges the summary record is filed as a part of the student teacher's cumulative record but is not used for placement purposes. If this is the practice of the college with which you are associated, you may be asked to write a statement for the special placement record. Such a statement, of course, will be based on the final summary record which you and your student teacher make at the close of the period of student teaching. In translating the data on the summary record into letter form, you may find it helpful to keep the following suggestions in mind . . .

- Describe briefly the setting in which the student teacher worked—grade, school and community setting, any special factors in the situation which greatly affected the student teacher's work.
- Deal with each major area of growth in a separate paragraph—(a) stating in a brief sentence or two the quality of the student teacher's work as it relates to the particular area, and (b) giving evidence of the behavior that bears out the quality ascribed to the teacher-to-be.
- Give a balanced picture of both strengths and limitations.
- Give your best judgment as to the student teacher's potential and promise of continuing growth.

The two letters of recommendation which follow illustrate how these suggestions were implemented in the case of a very promising candidate and in writing for a student teacher who had major limitations to overcome and, while making steady progress, would require definite help "on-the-job."

Recommendation for Miss Evelyn Jackson

Miss Jackson has worked with me as a co-teacher for the past ten weeks in the fourth grade of Lafayette School, which is located in a middle-class community.

[2] Note the suggested inclusion of such a record in the summary reported on page 458. Illustrations of such a running account can be found on pages 364–367.

Throughout the work she has evidenced very real interest in the children and has shown definite growth in her understanding of them and of the meaning of fundamental principles of education in working with youngsters of this age range. This is clearly illustrated in the following statement taken from a recent summary report of her work at Lafayette School:

> I learned much more when I could actually take part in the work with the children—if only to read a story or talk with the children about a picture one of them had made. The same is probably true of children—they should be active participants. . . .

The children like and respect her, turn to her for help, and have confidence in her counsel. In her relations with the children she has evidenced a quietly firm manner coupled with a good sense of humor.

Miss Jackson is a student of education. She prepares thoroughly, faces problems squarely, and makes decisions based on good reasoning. She has shown genuine interest in faculty affairs, attending both professional and social activities. Her ideas carry sufficient weight to cause others to accept her contributions thoughtfully, and she gives freely of her time and energy. She has taken responsibility on several occasions for work on faculty committees. Miss Jackson attended the professional meetings of the County Teachers Association on two occasions when these were held on Saturdays. She expressed a desire to attend the State Association convention but was unable to be released from community classes.

Relations with parents are sound and Miss Jackson has shown an active interest in our PTA. Parents accept her as another teacher at Lafayette School. She has been invited into homes when circumstances would not have made it necessary to include her. This is in part explained by her sensitivity to individuals—adults as well as children—and her willingness to work with them in ways that are meaningful and useful to them. At the same time that she is flexible in her relations, she maintains standards.

I am glad to recommend Miss Jackson as an able young teacher who should be a capable and cooperative member of an elementary school staff. She probably will do her best work in the intermediate grades. There is every reason to believe that she will continue to grow personally and professionally.

Recommendation for Miss Dorothy Dodson

Miss Dodson has been a student teacher in the junior high school core program for the past semester. She has worked with very able boys and girls who come from well-established homes that provide a rich learning environment.

Throughout our work together she has shown fundamental concern for and interest in the developing adolescent. She has real feeling for him, can appreciate his interests and concerns, and can see herself as a

"college adolescent." These are very real assets. Miss Dodson, however, lacks in self-confidence and a corresponding positive leadership. This is due primarily to her rather limited background and less-than-adequate control of content and materials with which these boys and girls are ready to deal. She has been forthright in recognizing and accepting her problem, and has made strides in working to overcome this limitation. Her sensitivity to the problem has, however, created the insecurity referred to. It has also caused her difficulty in freeing herself to implement the educational principles to which she genuinely subscribes. For example, she recognized the concern of many of the youngsters for the payment given for their part-time work. (Although most of the pupils come from well-to-do homes, parents encourage part-time work because of the personal qualities that it promotes.) It was her proposal that we give attention to this problem and she pointed to the relationship with the unit on Earning a Living which we planned to develop later. She opened the unit most satisfactorily and the young people were enthusiastic about the area of work. However, having identified the problem with them, she was unable to move *with* them in its study. She finds it difficult to let children share in planning their attack on a problem, as in this case when she said, "We can probably best get at our problem by finding out the various ways of making a living and then seeing what each involves and its positive and negative elements." She knows her problem and has made progress in working on it.

Parents like Miss Dodson and she likes them. Throughout the semester she has used every opportunity to learn more about the pupils through her contacts with their parents at PTA meetings and in our individual conferences.

Miss Dodson has worked effectively with members of the faculty and has attended all faculty meetings to which student teachers were invited. She responds and reacts intelligently to staff problems and actions. Here she is able to accept a peer relationship with appropriate self-confidence.

Miss Dodson has made progress that is soundly based. It is my judgment that she will be an effective teacher next year if properly placed. It would seem advisable that she work in a situation where she will have understanding counsel and help. It would seem advisable, also, that she work with a rather "typical" group of youngsters. She would make a real contribution in a situation where there was interest in moving gradually toward more cooperative planning with youth. She knows what she wants and what the basic principles mean in this area, but she needs time and opportunity to move gradually in implementing these values.

In closing this discussion it is well to recall that the student teacher desires your honest and direct evaluation of his work. So does the employer of that teacher-to-be. It is no kindness to

either person to fail to state accurately the situation as you see it. The student teacher who is not ready to undertake teaching, or who is placed in a situation in which he cannot be reasonably successful, will be frustrated and unhappy as a teacher, will revert to the practices which are means of escape, and through those practices will provide limiting experiences for children and youth. Growth of your student teacher should be interpreted and reported forthrightly but in ways that are accurate, understandable, and suggestive of next steps.

PERSONS WHO SHARE RESPONSIBILITY WITH YOU FOR EVALUATING STUDENT TEACHER GROWTH

Who are the persons responsible for both the continuous evaluation which is a part of the learning process and for the stocktaking and summary evaluations which are made from time to time? Your part in this process has been the subject of the preceding pages. Who are the other persons who share this responsibility with you? What is the role of the student teacher? Do the pupils have a contribution to make? How should college personnel share in the evaluation process?

Evaluation Is a Cooperative Process in Which the Student Teacher Has an Active Role

One of the very important aspects of your student teacher's growth is the ability to evaluate his own teaching and other professional activities. The effective teacher must be his own best critic. Sad indeed is the plight of the young teacher who depends upon appraisal by his principal or supervisor for self-satisfaction. Equally limiting is the situation in which the teacher blindly accepts evaluation of his work by others without testing their reactions and proposals against his own study of the situation. Coupled with each purpose for evaluating the growth of your student teacher, there should be the parallel purpose of helping the student teacher to grow in power to evaluate himself.

To grow in this ability your student teacher must be active in the evaluation process as it applies to his work and to the work of

others in professional situations. This means that he will share in each step of the evaluation process with you. He will share in setting up the behavioral goals toward which he will work, in evaluating the "running notes" which you have taken of work for which he has carried major teaching responsibility, and in evaluating the running record which he has made of work when he has been largely an observer and participant. These are aspects of the evaluation that takes place from day to day as together you reflect on what has happened with learners and plan for guiding their experiences in the future.

Another kind of evaluation in which the student teacher should be an active participant is that which relates to your experiences together as you participate in faculty meetings, professional committees, parent conferences, meetings of parent-teacher association groups. How does your student teacher view what takes place in these situations? What changes would he recommend as he thinks about what took place, and what does he see as desirable next steps? How is he generalizing about these experiences? How is he responding to informal associations with your peers, including the administration? These contacts and situations are important parts of the teacher's work. Your student teacher needs your guidance in reflecting on them and in making decisions regarding his future behavior in these areas.

Sharing in the making of a summary evaluation will be a natural outgrowth of the previous day-to-day evaluations. Your student teacher will find it useful to make an independent summary evaluation and then compare the notations he has made with yours. Together you can select those which you both believe to picture most accurately his behavior with pupils, parents, colleagues and other professional personnel. The student teacher will not find this too difficult to do if you use such a procedure as that suggested by the three-column record—analysis, evidence, recommendations. There may be times, of course, when you may differ in interpreting the evidence. If the difference remains after careful discussion, the summary statement can indicate the point at issue and include both your and the student teacher's comments and supporting evidence. The same general procedure can be used in those instances of differences when a rating sheet or checklist is required as a summary evaluation.

When this is part of the evaluation procedure you will, as noted previously, discuss together the meaning of the various items and develop a common understanding of what is involved in the checking or rating of each item.

When the student teacher has the necessary vital and important part in the evaluation process, there need be no fear attached to evaluation. It will not be something done to him, but something in which he shares. He does not have the insecurity of wondering what progress he is making, of trying to guess how you feel about his work, of dreading the time when a letter of recommendation or grade is to be sent to the college. He knows the progress he is making; he knows what can and will be included in reporting his progress. And perhaps most important of all, he knows what is expected of him and what he must do if he is to be a competent teacher. He is learning, painful though it may be at those times when things are not going well, to look at himself realistically and without panic. He is developing the important ability of self-evaluation.

Children Contribute Evaluative Reactions

Some college personnel, including cooperating teachers, believe that children and youth should share in evaluating the growth of the student teacher by responding to an inquiry addressed to them. The reactions and observations of pupils are not to be regarded lightly. Children and youth are sensitive to the behavior of the teachers who work with them and they can identify the way they feel about their teachers—what they like about them and why, what they find difficult. While the authors of this volume respect the judgments of learners, they do not hold that an evaluation of the student teacher through even a well-developed inquiry form is the responsibility of children or youth. Nor is it a natural or integral part of their ongoing concerns. Rather than use a special instrument or direct attention to evaluation of the student teacher, it is suggested that both you and your student teacher be aware of the free and unsolicited responses and reactions of pupils. What does it mean when Jack is overheard to say, "Yeah, she did ride Ben pretty hard. But she is new at teaching and she does try to be fair and square. She

probably would admit she made a mistake." What is Sally revealing when she asks the student teacher, "Would you work with me after school on my geometry? Just use simple, everyday words and I think I'll understand."

Representatives of the College Have Responsibility for Evaluating Student Teacher Growth

The student's work in student teaching is an integral part of his total program of teacher education. He brings with him to the laboratory situation his previous learnings from class and non-class activities at the college. He takes with him the added experiences of student teaching when he returns to the college to complete his program of study. Those who know him best at the college can give special kinds of assistance in the student teaching situation. One aspect of such help is in the area of evaluation, in interpreting behavior in student teaching in light of previous college experiences and in understanding what the student's behavior means for guidance and experiences after student teaching.

The person from the college who will work most closely with you and the student in the evaluation process is the college supervisor of student teaching. This is the individual who will visit the student teacher as he works in your classroom and who will confer with both of you, individually and together. It is hoped that he will visit the laboratory situation frequently and work intimately enough in the situation to be in a position to make a valid evaluation of the student teacher's progress. No matter how closely he works with you, however, you are the one individual who knows the student teacher's work most intimately. For this reason it is suggested that you and the college supervisor prepare independent summary reports of progress and file them as a part of the student's cumulative record. This statement should not be interpreted to mean that you, the college supervisor, and the student teacher would not discuss the student's progress together. Quite the contrary. Throughout the period of student teaching, it will be helpful to have two- and three-way conferences. You may even wish to have a three-way

final evaluative conference. It does suggest, however, that each will be free to make the final summary statement that most accurately and adequately represents his knowledge and understanding of the student teacher. For those who read the separate statements, there will be an indication of the extent and nature of contact with the student teacher upon which the report is made. Separate evaluative reports also have another advantage; it is possible for differences in judgment to be reported. Often, when a single statement is made, compromise irons out the critical factors.

Other persons from the college who may share in the evaluation process are the student's major adviser and the coordinator or director of student teaching or laboratory experiences. It is to be hoped that each of these individuals, especially the student's adviser, will spend some time with the student in the school situation. Whether these individuals should file a summary statement of an evaluative nature, or simply report on each visit they make, depends on the extent of their acquaintance with the student as a student teacher. Evaluative statements by these persons, like those of the college supervisor, should be independent statements which give the reader some notion of the nature of the association with the student teacher. Here, too, back of the individual statements may be one or more joint conferences with you and the student.

One of the added values of having members of the college staff share in evaluation is that out of such work will come better ways of evaluating growth. Student teaching is a critical point in the development of the teacher-to-be. Every effort should be made by those involved—including the student teacher himself—to make evaluation a learning experience of high quality and one through which the student teacher, you, and the college representatives accurately envision the young student's potential for effective membership in the teaching profession.

16

GUIDING YOUR STUDENT IN THE TRANSITION FROM COLLEGE STUDENT TO MEMBER OF THE PROFESSION

TEACHERS are first of all persons who live and work in a democratic society that places certain clearly defined obligations on its members. As persons playing a major role in the induction of the young into that society, teachers bear unusual responsibility as people and citizens. Membership in the largest and certainly one of the most important organized professional groups in our country likewise places specific obligations on teachers as professional workers. How you may help students understand and intelligently assume obligations resting upon them as persons in a democracy and as members of an influential profession is the content of this chapter.

PERSONAL-SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF FUTURE TEACHERS

In a speech before the National Association for Student Teaching, Haskew analyzed the purpose of guidance in preservice teacher education as follows:

To prepare a person
Disposed to teach
Composed to teach effectively
Destined to live triumphantly.[1]

His statement of purpose is an admirable blend of emphasis on the personal and professional and suggests that attention should be deliberately focused on the kind of person to be developed as you work from day to day in helping future teachers build positive attitudes toward teaching and the knowledge and skills necessary to effective teaching. It supports the conviction of most teacher educators that the personal and the professional are not separate entities but rather each is basic to the other. Unless teachers are mature persons, they are not likely to live triumphantly nor to teach effectively.

Inferences may be drawn from many of the suggestions made in previous chapters of this book as to ways in which you contribute to the personal-social development of prospective teachers. But your influence is of such significance that it should not be left to chance, either in your own work or in this volume. Perhaps your most important contribution to the future teacher as a person is made through the example you present. It is essential, too, that you guide students in certain kinds of experiences for the chief purpose of helping them develop as persons.

Your Students Observe and Reflect upon You as a Person

Future teachers who work with you have had long and continuous contact with members of the teaching profession. Out of this contact they have emerged with certain conceptions of what it is like to be a teacher, conceptions which include feelings about teachers as people. Indeed, until the time when a student makes his professional choice to enter teaching, most of his ideas about teachers relate to them as persons rather than as professional workers. Only when an individual has identified with a professional group does he begin to be concerned with specific professional qualities. By the time the teacher-to-be is doing his

[1] Haskew, L. D., "Purpose of Guidance in Preservice Teacher Education." A speech delivered at the national meeting of the Association for Student Teaching, Chicago, Illinois, February, 1957.

student teaching, he is at least somewhat identified with the profession. During his student teaching, more than at any other time in his preparation, he concentrates on becoming a teacher, with all that means in terms of developing capacity to teach well. But, even at the point when the future teacher is concentrating on professional knowledge and skills, his early interest in teachers as persons persists, and it is fortunate that it does.

Idealists as most college students are, they envision themselves ten years hence as wholesome, popular, flexible, happy, and successful human beings. They know that the chances for realizing their vision of themselves rest on personal qualifications and behavior as much as on professional competence. In fact, many of them set up for themselves principles which they believe will ensure adequate and happy personal lives. For example, they often feel and sometimes say: "I never want to get so bogged down with my professional life that I don't have time for living"; or, "I'm going to be sure to have lots of interests, so I don't always find myself talking shop on social occasions"; or, "You can be sure I'm not going to be like some teachers I know, teachers who don't ever do anything but teach"; or, "I think teachers must take more active part in community living if they are to be respected." With such ideas in the background, your students look at you to see what kind of person you are; whether you come up to their vision of what a teacher ought to be as a person. How can you help them to know you as a person?

When it is appropriate, share your personal life with your student. No one would believe that all of one's personal life should be shared with another person, much less shared with a professional colleague. Nor does this suggestion imply that you should feel any responsibility for sharing with your student even most of your personal life. What is intended is that you should share enough of yourself to give the student a chance to see you as a person as well as a teacher. While many examples of this kind of sharing could be given, only a few are included here by way of illustration:

Relating interesting, humorous, or baffling episodes which reveal you as a person, living a normal and happy home and family life:

A cooperating teacher said to his student teacher one morning, "If you see me smiling seemingly about nothing today, just know that it is because I am thinking about something that happened at home this morning. Beth, that's our three-year-old, fell out of bed last night with an awful bump. We put her back and she never knew she fell, but this morning she said, 'Daddy, I was Humpty-Dumpty last night.' "

Recognizing problems with which you are concerned both as a person and as a teacher:

A student and a cooperating teacher were discussing a poorly dressed and inadequately cared-for child one evening when the student commented he was afraid he had some prejudice in favor of children who were well-dressed and attractive-looking. "You know," the cooperating teacher said, "I'm interested in what you say. I had taught three years before I suddenly realized that I had some bias, but mine is in the opposite direction. One of my biggest problems is that, if I'm not careful, I have resentment toward people who have good clothes and nice homes. I guess it comes from the fact that I myself grew up in a lower income home and always wished I could have what other people had."

Revealing your personal interests:

The student said he was free on Friday evening when the cooperating teacher asked about it, so the teacher proceeded, "Would you be interested in going with me to an exhibition?" The student wanted to know what it was and where. "Well, you see, it is like this. I work every Friday night with a group of older children at the church in what we call hobby nights. I love doing it for it gives me a chance to get into woodwork, my own hobby, and at the same time I think it is good for the youngsters that come."

Indicating your feelings and ideas on social and political issues:

The morning newspaper was lying on the desk. While the student was taking off his wraps, the teacher commented, "Really, I get more and more confused on what I believe as I read the papers these days. I used to feel very strongly that the single industry which brought so much labor and money into this town had a right to a good measure of power in controlling the town. But so much has happened that I begin to feel some limits should be set." A discussion ensued that helped both the student and the cooperating teacher to clarify their thinking on the issue which prompted the morning headline.

The foregoing illustrations suggest the kind of sharing of your personal life that would seem to be appropriate. You will find many occasions that lend themselves to such sharing. In revealing

yourself to your student as a person with wide interests, strong feelings, disturbing problems and uncertainties, and joys as well as sorrows, you are making a significant contribution to the student's concept of teachers as persons. Furthermore, you are suggesting the kind of person you think a teacher ought to be.

BE THE KIND OF PERSON YOU THINK A TEACHER OUGHT TO BE. Engaging in the kind of sharing of your personal life that is suggested in the illustrations above is one important way to contribute to the student's developing concept of teachers as persons. However, whether or not you deliberately share your thinking and your feelings as a person, the kind of person you actually are is clearly revealed through your behavior. Your students, like all people, have a strong tendency to infer your basic beliefs, your emotional stability, your breadth of interests, and other personal characteristics from your behavior. In some cases, they may even have a tendency to imitate your behavior as they perceive it.

The degree of patience, the appropriate control of emotions, the consistency, the zest, the sympathetic understanding, the empathy, the feelings toward all kinds of people—all these and many other qualities of personality are revealed daily in your contacts with pupils and with your student teacher. Of course, as a human being, you, like all other people, are not perfect. No one always does what he knows he should do; no one's motivations are always the highest; nobody always acts on the basis of his accepted values. But because you have been selected to work as a cooperating teacher you are, it may be assumed, a person who is attractive to colleagues and friends, a person who exemplifies wholesome, happy, and constructive living as well as professional competence. Generally, you are the kind of person young people will want to be like.

As you well know, being that kind of person does not just happen by chance. It results from careful and continuous effort on your part. At this very point in your personal and professional life, you doubtless realize that there are better ways of meeting some of your problems than the ways you now employ. It is this realization that supplies some of your vision of what you want to be like and provides the stimulation for your vigilance and exploration of modifications in your behavior. While your student may not be

expected to have either the realization or the vision that you have at your level of experience and maturity, he is aware of some of his personal problems and he does need your help both in defining what he wants to be like and in "becoming."

Students Need Deliberate Guidance in Personal-Social Development

From the time your students were admitted to the college or university they have had various kinds of help in personal development. Living in residence halls where adequately prepared directors are available, participating in orientation activities, taking advantage of guidance and counseling services, and seeking and securing advice from instructors are some of the channels through which many students are helped in understanding themselves and in planning ways of increasing their pace of development toward personal-social maturity. In addition, the general education program usually includes opportunities for all students to examine their needs as individuals living in a democratic social order and to have experiences which help them meet those needs. Therefore, you may be confident that student teachers are aware of the importance of personal development and that they have already had help in their own development.

But they continue to need help and encouragement. They need your guidance during this important part of their preparation—student teaching. You can help each student with whom you work to raise his sights, extend his horizons, and deepen his concept of the kind of person he wants to be, and you can assist him in becoming that kind of person. You can do this by helping him to understand and accept himself, to develop inner resources and serenity so that he may live well with himself, and to extend his relationships with people, things, and events so that he finds rewards in group living and work.

The importance of self-understanding and self-acceptance for all people has been well established by psychologists. For teachers, it is generally agreed that a prerequisite to understanding and accepting others is a growing realistic understanding and acceptance of the self. You can contribute to your student's healthy acceptance of himself by your acceptance of him and his

behavior, by helping him identify his strengths, and by exploring with him the causal factors of his limitations if they are modifiable, or how to live with them if they are persistent.

You can help him greatly if you will guard against those things which appear to bring about destructive feelings of inadequacy or fear. However, it should be pointed out that not all such feelings are destructive. In some instances, they spur a person on to more desirable behavior. Even with the most careful guidance on your part your student will experience some degree of these feelings as, of course, you do yourself from time to time. Your responsibility is to decrease the chances that feelings of guilt, shame, or anxiety become deeply rooted in the person's concept of himself and thus become destructive. At least two general suggestions on how you may help your student to deal constructively with these kinds of feelings should be mentioned. First, you can help by providing him opportunity and encouragement to express his feelings, always with the purpose of planning ways of modifying them when desirable. Second, you can be sure that you share your critical reactions to him and his work in a way which reveals that you perceive him sympathetically.

While a growing self-acceptance contributes to being a happy, flexible, and constructive person, other things are important, too. Among them is the power within the person to occupy himself well while he is alone. In this day of spectator sports, television, and group activities people need to pay attention to building for themselves interests, hobbies, and habits which supply stimulation and satisfaction to them individually. You can help your students in this regard by direct suggestions and by implications. The former is illustrated by the cooperating teacher who made it a point to discuss his current reading and his new recordings with his student and who took the next step of saying, "I've finished with this book; would you like to read it?" or "This recording is most relaxing; would you like to borrow it for a week?" Other cooperating teachers find that they can provide the best guidance through their own behavior, as suggested earlier.

The person who understands and accepts himself and has inner resources stimulating to him individually is the person who is likely to adjust easily to the social nature of today's existence. He can extend his understanding to others; he can share himself with-

out fear; he can participate in social groups with ease. Such abilities are essential to being a contributing member of social, political, community, and professional groups. You can help your students increase their skills and develop positive attitudes as group members by discussion, by providing opportunity for direct participation in such groups, and by example.

You will want to give deliberate attention to guiding your students in their personal-social development. But the person cannot be separated from the teacher-to-be with whom you are working. It follows quite logically that you influence the person largely through the ways you guide his professional development. While this entire book is devoted to your work with students as future teachers, there remain a few special considerations having to do more directly with your guidance of students who are on the threshold of becoming members of the teaching profession.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: ESSENTIALS FOR MEMBERSHIP IN THE PROFESSION

A group of cooperating teachers met in conference with college personnel working in a student teaching program for the purpose of exploring suggestions from cooperating teachers on special needs students seemed to show when they came to student teaching. A summary of the first hour of the discussion showed that the suggestions of the cooperating teachers were represented by the following comments:

> Student teachers these days just don't know the subject matter they are trying to teach—the pupils can get them confused in short order.
>
> They don't know how to "discipline"—they can't control the pupils.
>
> Student teachers don't see the things they should; they don't take initiative.
>
> They don't take their work seriously. All they think about is dating or dancing.
>
> They simply do not know how to use the most common of methods—for example, the students I have right now don't have the vaguest notion of how to teach reading, really.
>
> The other day I asked my student teacher to make some plans with a small group and before I knew it, he was asking questions about

what they could and could not do. I think student teachers ought to know such things without asking.

Students who come to our school just don't feel enough professional responsibility; they don't want to do things that I know they should do as teachers.

At this point in the discussion one cooperating teacher said, "You know, I think we expect too much of these students. How well I remember my shaking knees and my fast-pumping heart when I began my student teaching." And another added, "I agree with you. I think we completely forget that we didn't always know as much as we do now." Then Mr. Potter, who had frowningly commented on dating and dancing, admitted "You put me to shame. I'll never forget the time I didn't show up for my student teaching because I went up to Minneapolis to see Jane—it was pretty important, you know. Now she's my wife."

Here was a group of cooperating teachers who were beginning to realize a fundamental concept in helping students in their professional development. Related to this concept is ability to put yourself in the student's place and know that your perspective has behind it greater maturity and experience and that it will be different from the student's because he is just beginning professional development, as you were a few years ago. Because you have continued to grow professionally you probably would find it difficult to reconstruct the feelings and the level of competence you had as a student teacher. Most cooperating teachers have a strong tendency to set their expectations of students with whom they work at the level they are now. To help your student most in his professional development, it is necessary that you understand and accept him where he is—see problems as he sees them, feel about responsibilities as he does—and begin at that point in your work with him. He is not a finished product; he is not a full-fledged teacher; student teaching is not a time to test him as a teacher. He is *becoming* a professional person; he is *learning* how to teach effectively.

A question you should raise with yourself and with your student quite often is, "What does it mean to be a member of a profession?" What does it mean, and how may you help the students who come to your classroom build the attitudes, knowledge, and skills which will ensure their intelligent participation as

members of the profession? Each of these basic questions is discussed in the sections that follow. In the first two, attention is directed to responsibilities of individuals for the quality of their work and continuous professional growth. The next two requirements relate more specifically to responsibilities to the profession as an organized group, and the final two bear relationship to responsibilities for inducting new members into the profession and representing teaching to the public.

Members in a Profession Are Required to Have Specialized Competencies

One of the distinguishing characteristics of a profession is the requirement that its members have preparation leading to the development of specialized skills and abilities. Indeed, the quality and effectiveness of any professional group depends greatly upon the abilities of its individual members. Your student's entire teacher education program is designed with the central purpose of helping him to develop those abilities needed by teachers as persons, citizens, and professional workers. The part of that program with which you work most intensively is clearly designed to assist students in their development of special competencies needed by teachers. Hence, you are continuously engaged in guiding your student in such development through the various ways of working which have been discussed in earlier chapters of this book. But having special competence is not all that is required of members of a profession.

Continuous Professional Growth Is a Requirement of Worthy Membership in a Profession

Bodies of knowledge, specialized skills, and abilities employed by professional people in their work do not remain constant. New knowledge is developed and improved ways of accomplishing purposes are discovered. This is as true of the teaching profession as it is of medicine, law, or the ministry. The science of education, young though it is, is rapidly developing so that a greater body of knowledge is available as a source for determining answers to basic questions on the what, how, and when of teaching, curriculum organization, and school organization. It is of the utmost importance that you, as a key agent in the preparation of

future teachers, are aware of changes implied or made explicit as new insights are gained from study of the education process.

It is of equal importance that you help your student with his understanding that things do change and that it is necessary to hold convictions as tentative. One of the ways in which you contribute most to the development of future members of the profession who can and will keep learning is to keep learning yourself and to share your learning with the student. Another way is to encourage the student to discuss his present theoretical concepts with you in an atmosphere of acceptance and willingness to explore their meanings in the guidance of learning in your classroom. In this regard it should be pointed out that you are fortunate in having the opportunity to keep your own professional abilities on the growing edge through your work with a young student who is currently studying recent theory in education.

Continuous professional growth includes perspective on what the past has to offer and on ideas and practices currently being explored. Again, it is important that you be informed and that you share your information, and the sources of it, with your student. This is the best way to help him see the need to know what the educational heritage brings to teaching and what contribution is made to your professional work by current thinking and writing in the field.

Specifically, you should be sure that your student increases his acquaintance with sources of current thinking and improves his ability to use them effectively. For example, in every area of teaching there are certain professional journals, publishing houses, and professional organizations which make special contributions to the field. There are certain kinds of professional conferences which devote their energies to examination of current thinking in various areas. There are identified educators who provide leadership in each field. If your student has not already built habits of using these sources, help him to locate them and apply them in his work with you. It is not practical here to try to name such sources, for the number is great and they differ for special fields in the school program. You and your student together will have profitable experience in exploring the kinds of sources that can make the best contribution to your keeping well informed. As a matter of fact, this is another kind of service your student can render you if you provide the opportunity. Since he is a college

student, currently engaged in study of education, he should be able to suggest the best of the current material for your cooperative use.

Members in a Profession Are Responsible for Contributing to New Knowledge

Some teachers and other educators have the concept that all theory is developed off somewhere in a university laboratory, its meaning interpreted by students of education, and then classroom teachers are told how to carry it out in practice. This is a fallacious concept. It is true that research and investigation as carried on by specialists in various fields related to education may produce theoretical concepts which then need to be interpreted and carried out in classrooms to test their soundness. This is only one way in which new insights in curriculum and teaching are arrived at, however. An equally productive method, and some would say a more desirable way, is for teachers to study their own practices as a means of improving them. Such study would involve testing your own ideas (or those of others) in your classroom and gathering evidence which can be used by other teachers as well as by yourself.

Members of the teaching profession are responsible for developing new theory and knowledge relating to their work. Of course, as suggested earlier, you do this very effectively as you demonstrate that you are constantly testing ideas and discovering ways of improving your own operations. If you deliberately take time to discuss your learning from experimentation in your teaching, you will help your student to attach real significance to this as an aspect of your work and, further, you will assist him in his beginning skills in conducting research on his own work.

One of your obligations to college students with whom you work is to help them learn how to test their ideas in practice, to generalize from their findings, and to share their hunches or their convictions with colleagues. This will call for your being sincerely interested in the ideas they bring to your classroom and providing ample opportunity for honest testing of those ideas. Sometimes cooperating teachers find this a difficult thing to do for two reasons. First, often students are unclear in their ideas.

While they have general concepts developed out of their college courses, they do not always see ways of putting them into practice. Then, too, even those students who have understanding of both the theoretical concepts and their meanings in classroom practice do not have the skills for putting them into operation successfully. If you are the kind of cooperating teacher who can view the student for what he is, a beginner, and if you feel your responsibility to be that of guiding him in his learning, you will recognize that one of your tasks is to help him clarify ideas and find ways of using them in his work.

The second reason that some cooperating teachers find it difficult to provide opportunity for students to test their ideas is that they feel somewhat threatened by the introduction of new ways of working in their classrooms. Such a feeling should not be regarded as something to be ashamed of or something that is wholly undesirable. After all, you are responsible for the learning experiences of boys and girls in your classroom. You are quite right in wanting to be certain that the very best guidance is being provided for your pupils. You are quite right in wanting to apply your best thinking and skill in teaching. But helping your student to examine his ideas and try them out in your classroom need not lower the level of educational opportunity for youngsters—not if you plan carefully with him, helping him to consider possible questions and difficulties and then together making decisions on how you may test his ideas. Furthermore, if you encourage the collection of evidence on what happens as ideas are tested, both you and the student are the wiser for having experimented and the pupils you contact in the future are the recipients of improved practices growing out of sound testing of ideas. Only as you take an experimental approach to your work and encourage your student to do likewise can you be sure that the future teachers with whom you work will do their share in contributing new knowledge to the profession of teaching.

Worthy Membership in the Profession Demands Service and Participation

Does your local school system have a classroom teachers' organization as an affiliate of the state teachers' association? In all

probability it does. Do you go to the meetings of both the local and state associations, assume responsibility for serving the group in various ways, and participate actively in its program? Do you make your influence felt as an individual in the formulation of principle and policy by which the organization focuses and carries on its work? You probably do. The teaching profession, as an organized group, needs individual members who do these things. Unless prospective teachers have experiences during their college preparation which demonstrate to them the values of professional organizations and the need for individual participation in them, they are not likely to enter the field of teaching with much conviction as to why and how they can and should participate. You carry unusual responsibility in this regard, for when students are working with you they are having the most direct and intensive experience they get in college with the teaching profession. Share your participation in professional organizations with your student.

The National Education Association is the organized professional group common to all teachers. Its members individually and collectively have tremendous influence on the future of the society, owing to their formally organized contact with all the children of all the people. What this professional group sets as its purposes, how it operates, and what it yields are the responsibilities of each member. Be sure your student understands this, and if he is not already a student member of this organization and looking forward to becoming an active member when he enters the profession, help him to see his obligation in this regard. The same may be said for the departments of the NEA. One or more such departments are of special concern to you and your student in your specialized field, and you will want to be sure that your student is familiar with the work of that department and plans to become a participating and contributing member of it.

Members in a Profession Are Responsible for the Induction of New Members

Because you are a cooperating teacher, you are already making a very substantial contribution to the induction of new members into the teaching profession. It is unnecessary here to reproduce the many ways referred to in earlier chapters that you may oper-

ate to yield best results in helping prospective teachers to become worthy members of the profession. There are, however, two points which need special mention in connection with your responsibilities for inducting young people into the profession. The first of these relates to your work with your students following their experience in student teaching. The second has to do with your more general responsibilities in the induction of young people into the profession.

When you have closed your contact with the student as a student teacher, have you completed your obligation to him as a future teacher? While in practice unfortunately the answer to this question is likely to be "yes" more often than "no," ideally it should always be "no." Since you have worked with the prospective teacher more intensively than most other college staff members, you are well equipped to participate in the planning of experiences with the student following his student teaching. This includes sharing in the planning for whatever time he has left in his teacher education program on the basis of his needs, interests, and abilities as revealed during student teaching. But it includes more than that.

Your responsibility with the student extends over a period of years. It should involve you with other college instructors and the student in cooperative selection of his first teaching position. Once the student has accepted a position and is in the field, you should be able, and you should surely be called upon, to assist him with problems encountered and with making a smooth transition from preservice to inservice teacher education experiences. Some of the ways of providing such help are through informal or formal written communication, conferences with the student back on the college campus or in the field, visits to the student in his teaching situation, and participation in group conferences of beginning teachers held by either the college or a school system.

If the college with which you are affiliated as a cooperating teacher does not take advantage of your special capacity for helping the student in his transition from college to the field, you should suggest to appropriate college staff members your interest in this activity and your desire to participate in it. There are, of course, administrative problems, chiefly of a budgetary nature, which must be overcome to make it possible for you to participate.

For example, if you are going to visit last year's student teachers in their field positions this year, you need to be granted school days in which to do it. The dividends forthcoming to you, to the student, and to the college as a result of your participation in this follow-up are so great that once they have been recognized by those responsible for the budget (your school officials and the college administrators) the chances are that the problems will be overcome without undue difficulty to anyone.

A second, more general responsibility you share in the induction of young people into the teaching profession has to do with the influences you effect in the lives not only of your student teachers but also of pupils with whom you work and other young people with whom you come into contact. This general responsibility is one of attitudes toward the profession, respect for its work, concern for its problems, and pride in its development and accomplishments. Only classroom teachers who feel deeply proud of teaching, who believe it is a most worthy profession, should be working with future teachers. It is lamentable that our profession has in it a few individuals who do not feel this way and who succeed in communicating to young people only the problems and dissatisfactions of teaching. Such individuals render a great disservice to their profession. They discourage, rather than encourage, young people in selecting teaching as a career. But you would not be working with student teachers were you not eager to assume your responsibility for building positive attitudes toward the profession in the minds of young people. The same professional spirit that prompts you to work with future teachers should prompt you also to present your profession to all young people as something from which you get tremendous rewards and of which you are unquestionably proud.

The Profession's Prestige in the Public Eye Is Built by Its Individual Members

Your behavior as a teacher and as a citizen "speaks" to the public about the teaching profession. From you and your colleagues, the community draws its impression of values to be ascribed to the profession and to members who are in it. In this regard the teaching profession is in a singular position. As members of the

one professional group which touches the lives of all people without the deliberate choice of individuals, teachers are more likely to be judged by the public than are lawyers, doctors, or clergymen. After all, if parents have dissatisfaction with the children's doctor, they can go to another; not so if they are negatively critical of their children's teachers in the public school. In this instance they must find ways of working which will bring their criticism to bear on the educational program, but they cannot choose to take their children out of school (except where they can afford to send them to a private school). Hence, parents and other community members tend to view the schools and teachers somewhat more critically.

Entirely aside from the regard with which parents and others hold individual teachers because of work with children and youth, there is the fact that the teaching profession as a whole is judged on the basis of a teacher's individual behavior in the community. Owing to this fact, it is quite necessary for you to demonstrate to your student that behavior does speak to the public about the profession. Furthermore, it is essential that you guide the student in developing the kind of behavior that speaks well of the profession. Among other things, this calls for being an active citizen, taking an intelligent and often a leadership role in community affairs.

In this chapter emphasis has been placed on selected essentials for membership in a professional group, specifically the teaching profession. It has been suggested that this profession requires its members: (1) to have specialized knowledge and skills; (2) to continue to learn and to keep abreast of current theory and practice; (3) to contribute to knowledge; (4) to serve and participate in its organizational aspects; (5) to assume responsibility for inducting new members; and (6) justly to represent the profession in the eyes of the public. In one sense this is a summary of your obligations as a classroom teacher and your responsibility as a cooperating teacher to your profession. While your skillful guidance of your student as he develops into a full-fledged member of the profession is a significant contribution, your own attitudes and behavior make an indelible impression—an impression that affects the lives of hundreds of children and youth in the years ahead.

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